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ABSTRACT

Topics covered in this symposium included: (1) a perspective for seeking commercial sponsorships; (2) developing an activity program that perpetuates developmental skills; (3) emerging American lifestyles: implications for park and recreation professionals; (4) clinical hypnosis: a possible adjunct to therapeutic recreation; (5) impact fees for parks and recreation; (6) developing a family philosophy of recreation; (7) outdoor recreation leadership; (8) risk activities at St. Cloud State University; (9) accident reports--tools for sound management; (10) Utah youth opinions on marriage and the family; (11) curriculum evaluation for educators in recreation and leisure services; (12) effective department administration; (13) public-commercial cooperation in recreation programs; (14) person-centered leisure services curricula; (15) five year follow-up of The Harborview Medical Center Rehabilitation Service Community Integration Program; (16) measuring satisfaction of National Outdoor Leadership School Students; (17) promoting health in the parks and recreation setting; (18) youth recreation leadership development and the Job Training Partnership Act; (19) fitness in America; (20) adventure games: safe risk recreation; (21) managing our way to a preferred future; (22) pricing for recreation; (23) the effect of year-round school on leisure patterns and programs; (24) the cultural arts park at Fargo, North Dakota; (25) the role of computers in developing leisure programs; (26) visual educational technology; (27) therapeutic recreation programming for the head injured patient; and (28) practicum agencies and excellence. (JD)

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INTERMOUNTAIN LEISURE SYMPOSIUM

Hosted by
Utah State University
November 7, 1985

Sponsored by
Brigham Young University, University of Nevada, Las Vegas, Utah State University, University of Utah, Weber State College, Utah Recreation Therapy Association, Utah Recreation Parks Association

Directors
Craig Kelsey and Mike Vander Griend

Editor
Howard Gray

PREFACE

It is with pride that we report on our stewardship for the proceedings of the l985 Intermountain Leisure Symposium (ILS) on Leisure, Parks and Recreation. This sixth annual ILS included thirty (30) invited papers in the proceedings. These include perspectives of professionals from coast (California) to coast (North Carolina). Presentations range from the hands-on-practical issues to completed research and innovative projects/programs that have been written especially for the proceedings.

The l985 Intermountain Leisure Symposium was sponsored and hosted by Utah State University under the chairmanship of Dr. Craig W. Kelsey. Co-sponsors for the ILS include: The University of Utah (host of ILS 1980 and l981), Brigham Young University (host of ILS l982 and 1983), Weber State College, Utah Recreation and Parks Association, Utah Recreation Therapy Association and AALR Task Force on Higher Education.

We would like to express appreciation to those who have particpated in the Intermountain Leisure Symposium. The ILS was initially hosted by The University of Utah (l980) and has expanded over the past six years of its existence. The quality of research, innovative projects and programs have received national recognition among our colleagues. We are especially appreciative of all those professionals (serving without remuneration) that enhance the content of our symposium and proceedings. THE PURPOSE OF THE INTERMOUNTAIN LEISURE SYMPOSIUM IS TO ENHANCE PROFESSIONAL GROWTH AND AWARENESS IN LEISURE, PARKS AND RECREATION IN OUR INTERMOUNTAIN AREA!

Mike Vander Griend
Craig Kelsey
Howard R. Gray

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

URPA: A Perspective for Seeking Commercial Sponsorships

Howard Gray, Brigham Young University

Abstract

URPA Ways and Means Committee long-range plan is to identify recreation-based special event sponsors and formulate commercial/corporate involvement strategies.

Seeking Business Contributions

If your organization is getting results that benefit your community, you can ask local businesses and corporations to support your work. Any for-profit business can give a donation to your organization. This can be enhanced by a favorable 501-C3 status with the IRS. Legally, for-profit groups may give away up to 5 percent of their pretax income- the national average is about one (1) percent. In 1983 and 1984 corporations gave more money than foundations to nonprofit organizations in America ($3.4 billion volume). This is a growing and dependable source of monies! Last year, recreation-based special event sponsorships across the nation (on a major scale) included nearly 2,000 companies that provided over $850 million as program sponsors. A guide to these events and shared/sponsorships is available from Special Events Report, 213 West Institute Place, Suite 303, Chicago, Illinois 60610.

The corporation does not need to be large in order to give you money! In fact, many large corporations have the practice of giving small amounts. Ninety-four percent of the corporations that make gifts to non-profits gave a total of $1,000 or less. Most business interests are supportive of events that (1) will benefit their employees, (2) make it easier for them to make a profit, or (3) help improve their image with investors or customers. Non-profit organizations can take full advantage of these motives with a little bit of homework.
Begin by making a list of all the places that your organization or organization members spend money. All of these companies can support your work! Second, ask your board members to make a list of all the places they spend money. Tell them to keep a card in their wallet or checkbook and each time they spend money during the next month, write down the name of the business or store that got the money. When you combine the lists you will see which businesses are making a profit from your organization. These are the easiest to start with, because you already have contacts within the company!
Make a list of every place that your board members have worked- full time or part time. Add a list of where they have worked in the last ten years. All of these companies make money from the talent and energy of your board. They ought to contribute to the program presently being run by your board members.
Next, ask other organizations for the names of companies that gave them donations! If a company is giving monies in your community or to your kind of program, it is a logical place to begin with inquiries. Do not be too concerned about competition. Most companies that give dollars are eager to support good programs. They are likely to continue donations to several arts programs, health care programs, and educational programs. They can give to you, too.
Last, simply find out which are the most profitable companies in your area. Recruit a stockbroker-type to tell you the latest business gossip about local companies. This is called "market research." Read the Wall Street Journal, your local business paper, the finance section of your daily newspaper, Leisure Information Service Recreation Executive Report, and the business magazines such as Fortune and Forbes. This can tell you which of the large publicly held companies are thriving within the economy. To identify the smaller companies, you must research by word of mouth from the people who work there. Your own membership might be the best source of information on small local business activity!
Once you have a list of local companies and contacts, you want to approach for dollars, you need to prepare a package of information and begin the research to find the right person within the company. Two members of the Ways and Means Committee can research and draft a corporate request package while the rest of the membership group identifies the best people to approach.

What To Ask For

The easiest thing to get from a company every year, surprisingly, is money. If you prove you are a good investment, give the company proper credit in print, and send an enthusiastic representative to close the deal, you can get money every year from local business. For-profit companies can give you a great deal in addition to cash monies. Do your homework! Remember that you will only get what you request. Thus, your committee must plan carefully what to ask and make each request unique to the resources of the company.
In some cases, you may be better off getting talent. A top-notch advertising firm can design your advertisement presentations, your logo, even your T-shirts so they can make more money for you in the market place. Accounting firms can give you a free or discounted audit if you are willing to adjust your fiscal year into the summer months. Some companies might give you one of their staff members to work full-time on your projects for a specific length of time. The company pays the salary and expenses, you get the skills.
According to the new tax law, for-profit companies can now write off their equipment in four years. This means they can choose to depreciate the value of their new equipment in four years, then give it to you, take the current market value of the equipment off their taxable income, and buy something new. Since the technology of word processors, personal computers, and other office machinery is advancing so swiftly, profitable companies usually want the newest equipment and are glad to give you their old models as they receive a tax advantage.
You can also get office furniture when a company needs to redecorate, plus supplies such as stationery and envelopes whenever it moves or hires new executives.
Remind all of your board members who work for a big company that you always need office supplies, equipment, and furniture. Make sure they put your organization first in line when the company needs to "find a charity" for its discards.

The Package

The purpose of your corporate package is to make your organization look like a good investment by emphasizing its results and accomplishments. Tell the executive of the donor company why, dollar for dollar, you are the best investment in your area. Show what your organizatic was able to do on last year's budget and how much more will get done on this year's budget that includes the nev contribution from the business. Design a generic corporate package and then customize it to appeal to each specific business request!

The Right Person

Once you decide which companies would be good prospects for your fundraisers, you have to find the best person inside the company for your initial contact. This is just like any other kind of organization or market-type of task You have to find a person who can say "yes." You must contact a person who can buy your concept. Their is an old, well-established sage- "Never talk to the monkey when you can talk to the organ grinder." This research will be largely word of mouth and will involve contacts with other organizations that get monies from these companies.
Be specific as you talk with other organizations. Ask others who they talked to who gave them money. The contact-level individual recommended may be a top level executive or may have a job that includes philanthropy for that company. Ask what the company person wants to hear and does not want to hear. Try to get three (3) or four (4) readings on each individual. Do your homework. This kind of work is very subjective and may be colored by differences in personality and style.

The Contact

Once you have chosen your prospects and built the package, match your best "contact" people with the companies being considered. The first year it is best if the board of directors leads the corporate campaign and asks for the biggest donations first. After the first year, you can recruit volunteers to serve on the fundraising committee (Ways and Means) for the purpose of renewing last year's contributions. This will allow you to utilize members of the board to ask for new contributions. This is the best way to utilize board members time. Thus, you can make the most money with the least expenditure of valuable board time and create contacts that result in renewable monies. Set a goal for the first month, such as having each board member call on five (5) businesses. If you have ten board members, they can ask fifty companies for money or in-kind items. If a quarter of them say, YES, and you get an average donation of $500, you will net $6,000 the first month of your corporate campaign!
Send a letter from the board that introduces the board member and explains who you are (organization) and why you want money. Include a copy of the generic corporate package. Ask for a specific amount of money that is within the range of the company's giving track-record. Most will not consider anything less than $100. The average cash donation may range from $50.00 to $5000.00. Donations will be dependent upon the size and success of the company. Find out the company's average gift by asking others or reading the company's records. At the end of the letter, say that you will call for an appointment.
Call back in a week to confirm that your letter has been received. It is your responsibility to call. Do not assume that if the company likes it, that a company representative will call you or that if they do not give you a call that they do not like the idea. You are to sell your program to them, so you have to be the one to call.
Try to set up a personal meeting. It will probably have to be during the regular business day. You can also take your board president, the person chairing the fundraising committee, or the staff member assigned to the project. Then go and sell your program! The best in the corporate world have staff people who may come out to a meeting or to a project site; however, for the majority of the for-profit donors, the only thing they will see of your organization is your (1) generic corporate package and (2) you.
Send a note right after the meeting thanking the corporate officer for meeting with you. If you get the requested contribution, be sure to keep in touch by thanking them and asking the officer for advice on how to approach other corporations. If you are not funded, keep in touch anyway, because they may simply be taking a traditional wait-and-see what develops attitude. The funds for this fiscal year may be gone. They may fund you next year if you show enough promise during this fiscal year. Also, people, staff and policies change within a corporate organization. You may be denied a request or hearing this round and be put on the top of the priority list next time.
It is well worth the time of the board to begin and to maintain a good relationship with the business community because they are able to give you contributions year after year. If you are successful in your contacts and efforts this year, it can pay off for decades.

Perspective of The VRPS 6 Point Plan

Since 1956, the Virginia Recreation and Park Society (VRPS) has been the private voice representing the leisure services profession in the Commonwealth. VRPS has established a 6 Point Plan to enhance this mission.
(1) VRPS is interested in establishing a private public interest organization representing the field, the Virginia Recreation and Park Foundation. By a foundatio it is meant "not made from block or stone, but a cornerstone for furthering the educational intent of parks and recreation." The Virginia Recreation and Park Foundation was begun as a committee study group from 1981 to 1983. The final approval of the incorporation process occurred on June 20, 1984.
(2) VRPS Foundation shall have the purpose of providing a vehicle by which persons and organizations may offer support in furthering the development of the park, recreation and leisure service field within the Commonwealth. The Foundation will be in the public interest, soliciting the resources, knowledge and needs of the citizens to increase the opportunities for leisure. Studies, endowments, research, statistics, public servic projects, educational programs and viability will be major areas that the Foundation will be addressing.
The VRPS Foundation, although <u>separate</u>, will complement the efforts of the Virginia Recreation and Park Society for leisure professionals. Together, the two organizations will address trends, educate the lay and the professional person as well as serve as the voice for the park, recreation and leisure services field.
(3) The VRPS Foundation (as with any new entity) has established and prioritized concerns. A major effort will include education and training in parks and recreation. Scholarship donations and subsequent review of eligible scholars will be a special interest- the present Jesse A. Reynolds Memorial Scholarship is now being directed and managed by the foundation. A study of continuing education possibilities in parks and recreation is being also pursued. Efforts to balance scholarships and training programs in developing needed professional expertise (practitioner), citizen knowledge and supporting relationships with college and university systems is necessary.
(4) Anticipated involvement and plan of action would include: FIRST YEAR- major project, brochure, membership
1-3 YEAR- two major projects each year

1-3 YEAR: develop public relations program
expand membership base
set a goal for donations
4-6 YEAR: expand $$$ goal
develop staff
expand PR to include formal programs-
a. exhibits
b. public service projects
c. events
1. class
2. club
3. league
4. tournament
5. festivals/special events
6. travel/tourism
7. forums
8. lobbying
expand program/projects
formalize scholarship to related fields
endowments
solicit contributions for foundation
a. wills
b. estates, etc.

(5) Membership profile for the VRPS Foundation would be open to: citizen/lay, community, private
professional- public, private, voluntary
related groups- health, tourism, environ
real estate development personnel
planners
landscape architects
therapeutic recreation
community recreation
outdoor recreation
commercial/industrial recreation
quasi-public professionals
others

(6) VRPS Foundation combines effort and active support with citizens and professional groups alike to sponsor exciting projects that will further develop and enhance quality leisure opportunities for all of us within the Commonwealth of Virginia.

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DEVELOPING AN ACTIVITY PROGRAM THAT PERPETUATES DEVELOPMENTAL SKILLS

Ron Mendell Mount Olive College, North Carolina
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With the ever increasing demand placed upon the quality and quantity of existing activity programs by State and Federal regulations, it appears appropriate that we should initiate a planning system that incorporates the basic developmental skills. These skills are perceptional, sensorimotor, self-help communication, social, self-direction, affective, and emotional stability. Since these skills involve a persons daily functioning and contribute to ones well being. The activity program should be planned around the emotional and medical needs of the resident and not around the requirement of the State or Federal regulation. Programs planned around meeting the regulations may meet those requirements but may not approach the many emotional and medical needs of the resident. For example, if a state requires a minimum of 35 minutes of activity per licensed bed per month and the facility complies by having 34 minutes of sing-a-longs, bingo parties, etc., the regulation has been complied with. This type of program would meet the needs of the residents in general, however, no real need will have been met. The program should far exceed this number. It would actually fall short of the bedfast or the developmentally disabled, who needs specially designed therapeutic activities. All too often we become overwhelmed with the regulation and fail to plan for the residents needs. By using the following areas as program guidelines, we may approach meeting the residents needs as well as the regulations. By using the afore-mentioned skills as program guidelines, you will also be more able to document the therapeutic aspect of your program. We do not want to imply that an excellent program needs all of the above, but that it would contribute to the total program of the individual or group. The first developmental skill to consider is that of perception. Webster defines perception as "A mental image: or a capacity for comprehension." This skill involves the residents ability to buy items from the resident store, handle most of their finances and be able to purchase clothing or other items when out of the facility on a shopping trip. It also involves the resident being able to understand the instructions provided with craft kits or those instructions given by the director when planning or performing an activity involving resident participation. If the square dance caller says go left, then you will go left if your perceptive skills are functioning. This also includes being aware of friends, relatives, and/or national figures.

Perception involves being able to respond appropriately to your surroundings or environment. The resident exhibiting inappropriate behavior during an activity would be said to have deteriorating perceptive skills. Through the use of reality orientation, remotivation, and reality testing on a regular basis, these problems can be observed and rehabilitative measures taken.

The next area of importance when developing or evaluating an activity program is sensorimotor skills. As the word indicates, these skills convey the use of all senses plus motor control. The two most important senses are vision and hearing. A high percentage of residents are or will experience a gradual decline in auditory and visual sensitivity. We, therefore, must plan activities and events that will compensate for this decline. Reading material or instructions should be large and clearly written, preferably printed. They should also be on contrasting materials. Light pastel colors should be avoided where possible, as they tend to be negated by the residents declining sensitivity to colors. Rather than assuming everyone sees the item we are working with, a clear precise description should be presented.

For hearing, one should always speak clearly and loud enough for all to understand. The ideal arrangement is the use of a P.A. system. This is a very important aspect of program planning. The inability to hear causes a tendency to withdraw from the discussion and/or event and also reduces the residents reality testing abilities. If you feel a resident cannot hear or see, you may have to arrange seating locations for various activities to meet these needs. By doing so, you may prevent potential program dropouts.

Balance and ambulation is another area of sensorimotor skills that should be programmed for on a regular basis. The facilities regular exercise program will generally meet this need. However, for those residents who have experienced a stroke or have some limiting impairment, the exercise and activity program must be adjusted to fit their particular needs. For those residents having difficulty with hand or arm control, a more specific type program should be conducted with your physical therapist and occupational therapy consultant as they will be able to provide specific exercise and craft projects designed for the residents specific disability. The residents physician should be consulted for approval of this program.

The next area of skill is that of self-help. This area is a very important aspect in the residents functioning. Since a high percentage of residents have declining ability, it is important for the activity program to include activities that enhance self-help skills. For example, a resident who has poor hand control and a weak grip would have difficulty holding utensils, and should be in a program of exercise and craft projects that would stimulate and help increase hand control and grip. Helping the resident regain the use of an affected hand or leg, will improve their self-image as well as muscular strength and coordination. The use of modified utensils is also helpful.

An activity program should also include etiquette classes as well as special dinner and luncheon classes that require more refined table etiquette than the average meal. Programs such as grooming, hygiene, and tips on clothing care should be a regular part of the activity programs. Many of these programs can be provided by volunteers such as clothiers, beauticians, barbers, etc.

Communication skills are a very vital part of the residents daily life, not only in conveying any needs to the facility staff but also for social interactions with family and fellow residents. For the blind person this may entail the use of volunteers to read and write letters thus maintaining effective communication. For the person who has had a stroke and has lost some verbal skill, we should coordinate with a speech pathologist for advice and direction. Then we should work on a one on one basis or in small groups where one

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or more residents with similar problems could freely discuss various topics regarding their disability. The communication activities should be coordinated with, as previously, a speech pathologist and also with the facilities social worker, as persons with communication problems may be experiencing emotional difficulties with which the social worker could assist. An orientation to the facility telephone should also be presented. There should be at least one telephone that is easily accessible to those residents confined to a wheelchair and modified for use by the blind.

The next area of importance is social skills. This includes such skills as getting along appropriately with fellow residents whether it be a roommate or at a social gathering or activity; being able to handle trips and excursions downtown or to special places of interest, as well as programs of special interest held at the facility that would involve the community coming into the facility. For those persons requiring assistance in this area, a social skills class would be most effective. Effective reality testing requires some additional skills that Hobbs (1955) describes in his book on psychotherapy. These skills allow the activity therapist to assist residents with reality problems thus improving their social skills. Social skills may be practiced and refined in a variety of ways ranging from individual activities and discussions to large parties and activities that may include outside visitors to the facility. If the need is great enough, the activity therapist may wish to coordinate with the social worker in developing a special skills group to help those residents who need help. (When we refer to reality testing we do not mean to imply reality orientation. We simply imply a need for a sounding board as the appropriate of the responses.)

Self-direction and independence skills is the next area of consideration. Included in this area are such things as dressing oneself, care of clothing, orientation to the living environment, use of public transportation, work habits, scheduling of activities, use of leisure time and others.

These skills can be developed or refined by participation in many activities, provided the program is well rounded. Some examples of activities are etiquette classes, grooming classes, classes on the use of adaptive equipment for residents with paralysis, and encouragement of educational programs. Also included in this type activity should be an Individual Educational Plan. The IEP or Individual Educational Plan is a program specifically designed to meet the need of the individual in pursuit of coninued education possible leading to a diploma or certificate.

Some of the independent functioning competencies that may need refining or rehabilitating are:

1. Dressing one elf
2. Caring for personal clothing
3. Orientation to surroundings
4. Ambulation and use of public and private transportation
5. Caring for living area (other than those services provided by facility)
6. Initiative and motivation
7. Organizing of time and activities and proper, effective use of adaptive devices

These are but a few of the many components that are considered to be a part of daily independent functioning.

There are a variety of programs available to meet these particular needs. For example, in the areas of clothing care, it would be very helpful to have either a local clothier or dry cleaning specialist provide occasional tips on how to care for clothes. This helps the resident and provides added community relations. Also important in this area are the classes designed for cloth mending, crocheting, and other programs that not only provide a needed service but also provide practice to those residents needing exercise with fine motor movement.

For the area of orientation to place (knowing ones address, town, state) and environment there are two specific activities that should be utilized. First, for those persons who are having trouble with orientations, there should be remotivation groups for the severly disoriented and reality orientation for those persons. Secondly, there should be special planning committees where residents could participate in the planning of either the facilities monthly or weekly program, or plan and follow through on birthday parties, picnics, or any other special event. Assumption or responsibility is very instrumental in maintaining ones reality orientation, motivation, and positive self-image.

For the area of leisure time, the activity therapist should provide individual leisure counseling for those individuals who need such. There should also be, as part of the regular activity schedule, free time activities that enable the resident to become involved in individual or group activities as they desire. It is important to foster a feeling of independence and self-reliance.

EMERGING AMERICAN LIFESTYLES: IMPLICATIONS FOR PARK AND RECREATION PROFESSIONALS

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Abstract

This paper presents findings which suggest changes in American attitudes, values and lifestyles. The paper also presents a typology of American adults clustered on factors useful to both social and corporate planners.

Introduction

Changes in American attitudes, values and lifestyles inevitably impact on the political priority (and levels of funding) given to such important issues as the preservation and restoration of the natural environment, support for public recreation areas and facilities, continued protection of personal freedoms, and other matters of vital concern to members of the Park and Recreation profession. Identifying and analyzing the rate, direction and implications of these changes is an integral phase of a comprehensive long range plan.

Attitudinal data is often unreliable, unavailable, unusable or some combination thereof. Nevertheless, the need to plan for the future still exists and the need to anticipate the impact of changing attitudes, values and lifestyles grows even greater.

The purpose of this paper is to address these needs by presenting selected, non-proprietary findings of research coming from the Stanford Research International's Values and Lifestyles (VALS) program[1] which are reported in a book written by Arnold Mitchell titled Nine American Lifestyles (Mitchell, 1983). More specifically this paper provides a background for a discussion of the potential implications of the VALS findings.

Those of us who work in the field of Parks and Recreation have not had much to cheer about lately. The gradual erosion of our tax base coupled with subtle shifts in public policies have tended to make us somewhat wary of the future. Thus it is heartening to report that the VALS's findings strongly suggest that American society may at last be moving in a direction compatible with the goals and ideals of the Park and Recreation profession.

According to the VALS data and Mitchell, our society appears to be moving toward a way of life that combines the best of the existing social ethic with a social ethic that, for want of a better term, can be called a "60's" ethic. In theory at least, a small cadre of inner-directed Americans is the leading edge of a potential social revolution. These "Inner-directed's" are, in many ways, reminiscent of the idealistic young people of the 1960's. Motivated by the senses, ("Goose Pimple" motivated, as Mitchell would say), they measure the worth of an experience or artifact largely as a function of the visceral reaction produced somewhere within. Inner-Directed's abhor artificiality in things and people. They are, for the most part, committed to a clean, natural environment and most of all they want to experience life. The kind of lifestyle we have been advocating for over eighty-five years.

The other good news is that the Inner-Directed's are predicted to almost double by 1990. If these predictions of growth are accurate they are significant to those of us that work in the field of Parks and Recreation for at least two reasons. First, it means we will have to re-evaluate the "kind" of programs we offer (less artificiality, more visceral). Second, it signifies a shift in the "number" of people seeking these kinds of experiences.

The Inner-Directed's are, however, only one of four groups used in the typology developed for the VALS program and reported in Mitchell's book. The typology, in and of itself, is interesting and has potential application in the field of Parks and Recreation (e.g., identifying adult program populations).

According to this typology, American society can be broadly classified into four different groups and subclassified into nine different lifestyles (TABLE 1). The four categories include: (1) Need-Driven; (2) Outwardly-Driven; (3) Inwardly-Driven and (4) Integrated.

TABLE 1

LIFESTYLE CATEGORIES

	LIFESTYLE	PERCENT OF THE ADULT POPULATION		MILLIONS OF ADULTS	
I	NEED-DRIVEN	11		17	
	1. Survivors		4		6
	2. Sustainers		7		11
II	OUTER-DIRECTED	67		106	
	3. Belongers		35		57
	4. Emulators		10		16
	5. Achievers		22		35
III	INNER-DIRECTED	20		32	
	6. I-Am-Me		5		8
	7. Experiential		7		11
	8. Societally Conscious		8		13
IV	INTEGRATED	2		3	
	9. Integrated (same as the larger category)				
	TOTALS	100	100		157

NEED DRIVEN AMERICANS (11% OF THE POPULATION)

The Need-Driven Americans include two lifestyle groups,

[1]These findings are part of the Stanford Research International's, "Values and Lifestyles" Program. Initiated in May 1978, the VALS program has been financed by more than 70 companies including All State Insurance, Corning Glass, Ford, General Telephone and Electronics, Hallmark Cards, Levi Strauss, Mercedes Benz, New York Telephone, Pillsbury, Shell, Time, Westinghouse, Weyerhauser, and Xerox. A major purpose of the VALS program was to identify American values and lifestyles for purposes of both corporate planning and analysis of social trends.

the Survivors and the Sustainers. Both lifestyles are motivated primarily, if not entirely, by the desire to merely survive. Questions of life satisfaction, self-fulfillment, and leisure take on quite different meanings for individuals within these two groups. They are the farthest removed from the cultural mainstream of American life, as Mitchell notes, they are the "least psychologically free."

Protecting the interests of this group has traditionally been a primary goal and responsibility of service professions like Parks and Recreation. To our credit we have worked hard to improve the quality of life for the "Need-Driven" people. To our chagrin we have only been partially successful.

SURVIVORS: The six million Survivors ("need-driven" people) are the "worst-off" group financially, are the oldest (65+), least educated, and the least likely to be currently married. They do not eat well, or exercise often. And, not surprisingly, they are the most unhappy [illegible] group in the typology.

Survivors are more distrustful of people than any other group yet they are the least likely to see themselves rebelling against the status-quo. They view the future without hope or motivation.

Survivors are severely restricted in their recreational behaviors because of age, education and the lack of money. Television is their primary source of entertainment.

Most typical of the survivors are the countless older women who rely on social security to see them through each trying month. If ever a group exemplified the need for the full range of public services (including Parks and Recreation) it is the survivors.

SUSTAINERS: The eleven million adults in this lifestyle group are much younger, more angry about their situation, and more prone to do something about it than are Survivors. Many are looking for work (15%), many work only part time (11%), most live on the edge of poverty, (average household income around $11,000), most have medium to low educational backgrounds, only about 8% have white collar jobs, the ratio of minorities is high (21% black and 13% hispanic).

Although there are some similarities, Sustainers are different from Survivors. Sustainers not only feel left out of society... they resent it.

They have a great need to feel part of a larger group. They get very little satisfaction from friends or job. Next to the Survivors they are the most unhappy.

Sustainers also rely on television for their main source of entertainment. Sustainers, however, think of themselves as more "with it" than do Survivors and tend to seek more hedonistic lifestyles. In short they are angry and dissatisfied with their lot in life and they often turn to pleasures of the flesh and Lady Luck for self-satisfaction.

To a certain extent it could be said that the Park and Recreation movement came into being because of this group, or more accurately because of the pre-adult version of this group. Perhaps more than any other, this has traditionally been the group used to justify annual budgets with a "keep them off the streets" rationale and mentality. They are the street people. Many are older, or former members of teen-gangs, potential criminals lurking in the ghettos of America. These out-of-work desperate Americans live by a pragmatic code that says "whatever works is good."

OUTER-DIRECTED AMERICANS (67% OF THE POPULATION)

The Outer-Directeds are the largest group (over 100 million) in the typology and can be thought of as being middle-class America. The Outer-Directed Americans contain three lifestyle sub-classifications: Belongers, Emulators and Achievers. Whereas it is relatively easy to understand the concept of "Need" Driven, Outer-Directed is somewhat more complicated. Mitchell defines Outer-Directed as people who "conduct themselves in accord with what they think others will think. Since "out there" is paramount, this tends to create ways of life geared to the visible, tangible, and materialistic" (Mitchell, 1983).

Outer-Directeds are less fearful, less despairing and less suspicious and, in general, they are much happier than the Need-Driven groups.

BELONGERS: This lifestyle group more than any other typifies middle America. They are the largest of the nine lifestyle sub-groups (57 million). They tend to be middle age, middle income, white, female, more likely to live in towns and the wide open country than in the cities and suburbs. They also tend to be conservative and underrepresented in technical, professional, managerial, and administrative occupations. Their average incomes are close to the national average ($17,300 in 1979) and about 10% make over $30,000.

Belongers are happy with the way things are. More conventional than experimental, they place great value on the family and they are more likely than any other group to disapprove of the changing moral values (particularly sexual values).

Belongers do not have high participation rates in "vigorous activities, cultural pursuits, inner-growth activities, adult education use of libraries, pleasure and business travel, use of credit cards and reading of most types of magazines." They are less likely to spend on faddish activities but rather prefer home and family activities including gardening and baking, needlework, collecting recipes, writing letters, sending greeting cards, and watching TV (especially during daylight hours). Their activity pattern suggests a deep desire to be part of the community, to "fit in." In only 20 of the 170 areas covered in the VALS survey do they deviate from the national norm by more than ten percentage points. This contrasts with 100 for the Survivors and 59 for the Sustainers.

The sheer size of this lifestyle group gives them leverage in matters affecting their welfare. They make up a large portion of the population we serve. To a large extent it is this group that provides the base of support, fiscal and psychological, that we need to run our programs. In essence, it is this group that creates the program demand that drives the budget.

EMULATORS: This group is made up of 16 million adults, mostly single young men (median age is twenty-seven).

Although poorly educated, most hold down full-time jobs in the city. They are ambitious, and hard working. In 1979 over half had household income between $15,000 and $25,000, and 17% (usually two income homes) made more. Almost all are high school graduates and approximately 25% have attended college.

Emulators love a party. They would like to see marijuana legalized and they resent social institutions intruding on individual freedoms. They see themselves as "swingers," and they approve of sex between unmarried people.

Ironically, emulators are very conventional in terms of national activity norms (second only to Belongers). They tend to copy (emulate) the patterns of others rather than express their own desires. "The activity patterns of Emulators bespeak a young group, neither intellectual nor artistic, not oriented to people or the home, socially inclined but without the financial resources required for extensive use of credit cards, pleasure travel, or fashionable dining out. They favor bowling, pool/billards, visits to night clubs or disco's, video games, poker, eating dinner while watching TV and they believe that TV is getting better.

Emulators are really nothing more than frustrated Achievers. They want to have money, power and the status but for whatever reason have been unable to make it. They are not a very happy group.

Relative to their needs, it is fair to say that Emulators have not been accorded the same priority as Belongers from recreation programers. Relatively small in number, politically inept, and unable to command much empathy from the larger community, it is no wonder that they are often given a low priority on matters affecting their interests.

ACHIEVERS: In terms of our traditional views of success the 32 million achievers are the most successful group in the typology. They are "the" upper-middle-class. This male dominated group (15 million women and 22 million men) has a median age of forty-three. The hallmark of this group is money. Their 1979 average income was $31,400 with 5% having income over 75,000. Ninety-five percent are Caucasians, with almost half working in professional, technical, managerial, or administrative positions. Twenty-one percent are self-employed and only 1% are looking for work.

Achievers are very happy with the way things are (they helped to make them that way). They are a conservative, self-confident lifestyle group. Their wealth as well as their education and their position within the work force give this group an inordinate amount of power for their size. They are in charge and therefore can control most of the events that shape their lives.

As might be expected they score high in activities like golf, attending cultural events, travel and events that are associated with wealth. Surprisingly they are not very tied into the arts, and seem indifferent to many health related concerns. They love to watch sporting events on TV and they are heavy patrons of professional, college, and high school sports events.

By and large it is unlikely that this group would rely on the services of the Park and Recreation profession as much as the other groups in the typology. This is not meant to suggest that this group does use recreation areas like municipal golf courses, or local, state and national parks. To the contrary, compared to the Survivors, Achievers are probably heavier users of our areas, facilities and programs. The difference is they are not as dependent on them. Their access to other forms of pleasure is much greater.

INNER-DIRECTED AMERICANS (20% OF THE POPULATION)

There are three Inner-Directed lifestyle groups (I-AM-ME's; Experiential's and Societally Conscious). Along with the Integrated they are the most interesting group in the typology because they are the wave of the future. As mentioned earlier they appear to be the fastest growing segment of society. They are setting the trends, or more accurately, values and lifestyles for the Outer-Directeds to follow. Inner-Directed's typically grew up in Outer-Directed families but failed to find satisfaction in the lifestyles of their Outer-Directed parents. Perhaps as a symbol of their dissatisfaction they determined to live in ways diametrically opposed to that of their parents. Rather than respond to cues from the world "out there", they chose, instead to listen to the dictates of their senses, to act on cues coming from within, in other words to be Inner-Directed.

I-AM-ME's: The I-AM-ME's are in some ways the least likeable, or at least the most difficult for older adults to understand, of the nine lifestyle groups. They are the young, single children of the affluent Achievers. They are usually students or just starting in a new job. The I-AM-ME's possess a unique highly expressive lifestyle almost surely originating in uninhibited individualism, facilitated by favored economic and social circumstances. They are the most active of the nine lifestyle groups. They are more likely to be involved in risk recreation than other groups, yet, they are in many ways more conservative than the other two Inner-Directed groups (e.g., they did not report a single instance of cohabitation).

They are seldom found watching TV. Instead they are committed to recreational activities and they come from homes which are highest in ownership of recreational equipment (e.g., camping/backpacking, exercise equipment, motorcycles, and racing bicycles.

The I-AM-ME's like to eat (fast foods), drink alcoholic beverages,and smoke cigarettes more than any other lifestyle group. They are often the source of the nonconforming fads that create generational tensions.

The high demand, high expectations and the low inhibitions of this group have often given this group a disproportionate share of Park and Recreation resources.

EXPERIENTIAL's: The nine million Experiential's are slightly older than the I-AM-ME's (median age twenty-seven). They are one of the fastest growing groups in the typology (expected to almost double by 1990). They, along with the Societally-Conscious, offer the most hope for the future. They are "powerfully inner-directed people--happy, in personal living but full of doubts about the way the system works." They live somewhat apart from others preferring to rely on themselves.

Experiential's welcome the new and different, prefer process over product, tend toward vigorous, outdoor sports (mountain climbing, hang-gliding, cross-country skiing). Perhaps because of the high value they place on experience, they support the legalization of marijuana, are very liberal in their sexual attitudes and behaviors and their support for women's movement. They are outspoken in their support for environmental issues ranging from pollution to land use.

The Experiental's are in many ways a grown-up version of the I-AM-ME's yet they attend fewer college and high school sports, fewer x-rated movies, bowl less, play less pool/billiards, chess, backgammon, and do less backpacking and motorboating.

Experientials are more committed to the spiritual, metaphysical aspects of life. They are more likely to meditate and there is evidence that suggests their involvement with cultural and educational activities is on the rise.

This group is of special interest to the Park and Recreation profession. Not only is it one of the fastest growing lifestyles in the typology, the direction of growth, at least insofar as environmental issues are concerned, is clearly supportive of long stated Park and Recreation goals.

SOCIETALLY-CONSCIOUS: This group is also expected to increase dramatically by 1990. The Societally-Conscious are more educated, and more dedicated to changing the system from within. They are the most mature of the Inner-Directed's. The "Societally Conscious" feel that they can make a difference if they speak out and support issues of social concern.

The Societally Conscious support functional,healthful, nonpolluting, durable, replaceable, esthetically pleasing, energy saving products. They are more likely to participate in activities that are both healthful and ecologically sound (eg.swimming, cycling, jogging, gym exercizing, sailing). They do not watch much TV, except, like the Achievers they like to view sporting programs.

This lifestyle group, like the Experiental's, should be of special interest to Park and Recreation professionals. First, because they, like the Experientals, also advocate the values of our profession, second because the rest of the nation appears to be moving in the directions of the Societally Conscious, and third, they are a formidable political and economical force to reckon with.

INTEGRATED (2% OF THE POPULATION)

This lifestyle group is smallest in the typology (3 million adults), and the most difficult to identify. In fact, this group exists in theory only. That is to say the VALS researchers and Mitchell, hypothesize that the Integrated's exist even though there is no specific data to support such a hypothesis. They believe that the Integrated's are those few Achievers who have made it financially and for one reason or another chosen to adopt the values of the Societally Conscious. Or they are the Societally Conscious that retain some of the values of the Achievers. "We believe they tend to be fifty-fifty Achiever and Societally Conscious. We think that most are people of middle or upper years, with a few in their twenties. We assume that most are relatively prosperous, happy people most numerous in occupations calling for good educations - notable managers, administrators, technical people, and members of the professions." (Mitchell, 1983)

The Integrated are described by Mitchell in terms that remind one of the self-actualized persons described by Abraham Maslow. They are happy with the status quo yet ready and willing to sacrifice in the name of large societal concerns. They would not hesitate to lobby for environmental issues, personal freedoms and world peace. On the other hand they are less likely to make important decisions based entirely on intuition or feelings. They combine the best of the past with the best of the present.

DISCUSSION:

The VALS's typology just described is interesting for a number of reasons. To begin with, it is a convenient way of conceptualizing the full range of adult populations. We can sympathize with the plight of the poverty striken Survivors, admire the vision of the Integrated's and criticize the self-indulgence of the I-AM-ME's, because they are lifestyles we have seen and can relate to. Many Traditional typologies are so open ended it is difficult to empathize with individuals in certain classifications. For example, many planners use "age" to classify adults (teenager, young adult, middle-aged, Senior Citizen). The range of attitudes, values and lifestyles in each of these age categories is so great that it is virtually impossible to make any general statements about them. To a lesser extent the same thing can be said about income, education and occupation classifications.

Remembering that the VALS program is being financed by some of the largest corporations in America,it is easy to understand why the typology is rooted in consumer terminology. These planners want to know what products are most likely to sell over the next ten years, what new products they should develop, and what existing products they should abandon. Corporate planners are interested in the purchase power and the purchase motivation of the nine lifestyles. Recreation planners, on the other hand, are more interested in the unmet needs of the nine lifestyles.

In addition to providing a potentially useful way of classifying our adult populations, the VALS's program suggests subtle shifts in American lifestyles and values that may alter public demand and expectations of Park and Recreation agencies. By 1988, according to the VALS program predictions, the number of Inner-Directed's will increase by over twenty million people, making it the fastest growing segment of the population. If the attitudes, values and lifestyles of the Inner-Directed's are diffused into the other components of the population as the VALS program suggests the long-term implications are staggering. Viewed in the most optimistic terms it suggests that American society may eventually abandon its long love affair with recreational activities that emphasize or encourage conspicuous consumption, materialism, competition and environmental apathy in favor of activities that are less costly in natural and fiscal resources and yet more intrinsically rewarding..... a change that has long been advocated by the Park and Recreation profession and one that is long overdue.

Finally, it should be noted that there is considerable support for the predictions made by Mitchell and the VALS's program. Daniel Yankelovich, using totally different data, also reports that a social revolution may be in progress, and that it is being led by a small cadre (17% of the population) of educated young people. Like Mitchell, Yankelovich suggests that the direction of change, although not yet fully understood, may well be in a direction similar to that of the Inner-Directed's. Both researchers urge us to be aware of these changes, anticipate their consequences and to the extent possible help to shape their direction.

For some people, a book like Mitchell's may do no more than raise their level of awareness, keep them in tune with the times. For others the book raises questions about agency goals and program adaptability. For still others, it raises hopes for the future.

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CLINICAL HYPNOSIS: A POSSIBLE ADJUNCT TO THERAPEUTIC RECREATION

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Abstract

This paper presents an introduction to stress management in the therapeutic recreation setting. In particular, this paper presents an introduction to clinical hypnosis, the uses of hypnosis in the therapeutic recreation setting, and sample programs for implementation. The common myths about hypnosis are explored. Th~ suitability of hypnosis to the above mentioned setti.g is also discussed.

Introduction

What is hypnosis? There are many myths about hypnosis that remain in society's perception of the word. One of the most common misconceptions about hypnosis is that someone (the hypnotist or hypnotherapist) takes control of your mind in hypnosis. This is simply not true. No one can be hypnotized if he or she does not wish to be hypnotized. No one can make you reveal sensitive information about yourself in hypnosis that you do not wish to reveal. There is always that "hidden observer" that protects your inner most thoughts. Another misconception is that hypnosis is the equivalent of sleep. Although the word hypnosis is derived from the Greek word "hypnos" which means sleep, actually the state of hypnosis is not the same as sleep. A few individuals may enter what is called somnambulistic trance or the deepest level of hypnosis. However, almost everyone remembers what happened in hypnosis unless some posthypnotic suggestions for amnesia were given and accepted by the unconscious mind. Hypnosis is really a state of intense concentration and focused attention. There is nothing mystical or magical about hypnosis. Most people have experienced a light state of hypnosis several times in their lifetimes. For instance, hypnosis is a natural state that humans and even animals slip into several times without really recognizing that they are in hypnosis. How many times have you been preoccupied with a thought and lost track of the time, your surroundings and perception of space? Have you ever tried to gain the attention of a four-year-old child who is intensely watching a favorite television program? What happened to the time when you were so completely absorbed in a good novel? All of these examples are light states of hypnosis. Another myth about hypnosis is that it has religious connotations. Hypnosis is not associated with any one religion. However, similar altered states of consciousness have been experienced as religious phenomena throughout the centuries. Jencks (1984) reported that the earliest know medical text in breathing therapy was engraved in China on 12 small jade plates in the 6th century B.C. The Hatha yoga branch of circa 200 B.C. made use of retention, rhythms and locks. Trancendental meditation, autogenic training, progressive relaxation, biofeedback, sophrology, suggestopedia and other forms of altered states of consciousness all have common physiological and psychological ramifications for the individual practitioner. Another common myth of hypnosis is spontaneous talking. The person needs to be assured that he will not reveal sensitive information that he wishes to keep secret. However, it is important to assure the person that one can talk while in hypnosis and not disturb the trance state. The myth that one will enter hypnosis and not come out of the state is another common fear encountered with clients. The client needs to be assured that this will not happen and that the client is in complete control of his trance. The control and rapport issue is crucial to attaining satisfactory hypnotic trance. Preparing the person for trance is perhaps the most important aspect of the hypnotherapeutic process. Therefore, a thorough discussion of these myths is a necessity. The rapport that is established between the hypnotist and the client is of utmost importance. One should always remember that by informing the client about hypnosis and the control the client maintains over "this altered state" in reality makes all hypnosis self-hypnosis. The client is the one who induces hypnosis and the person working with the client is simply a facilitator. Breathing is a natural adjunct to the hypnotic process. Jencks (1984) has written that "breathing measures can be used by themselves as hetero- or self- "mini-hypnoses" or they can be incorporated into any therapeutic or stress-ameliorating hypnotic procedure. The efficacy of whatever hypnotic method is used, is decreased by not utilizing the effect of the breathing phases" (p.33).

The intent of this paper is to introduce a program of relaxation training into the therapeutic recreation setting for possible inclusion into to traditional program offerings. The author is an advocate of adding systematic relaxation training (e.g., hypnosis) to many facets of therapeutic services already offered in society today. For example, Sweden recently incorporated relaxation training into the public school system as a regular part of the instructional day (Settarlind & Patricksson, 1982). Gordin (1985) has recommended a stress management program for family recreation pursuits. Stress reduction exercises have been recommended for businessmen, students, housewives and nurses (Jencks, 1984). This does not mean that the author recommends that the therapeutic recreation therapist should become invovled in psychotherapy. On the contrary, it would be unethical to do so. The author is suggesting that some form of altered state (i.e., hypnosis, autogenic training, progressive relaxation for some clients. This relaxation training should only be included if taught from a teaching model not a medical model. Hypnosis is only one such model in such a program. It must be reiterated that this type of program may be contraindicated in some programs of therapeutic recreation and for some clients. These limitations will now be discussed.

Applicability to Therapeutic Recreation

The traditional clientele involved in a therapeutic recreation setting usually falls into one of the following catagories: (a) mentally handicapped, (b) elderly (infirmed), (c) physically handicapped, (d) emotionally disturbed, (e) alcohol/drug dependents, (f) incarcerated individuals and (g) sensory impaired (Kelsey, 1983). The author will now try to clarify the applicability of hypnosis, in particular, and relaxation/stress management training in general for these subgroups of clients. Hypnosis has traditionally been utilized with various forms of mental handicaps including autism, dyslexia, and others. One of the mandatory requirements for such treatment, as with all uses of hypnosis, is that the hypnotist should attempt no processes that he can not or is not qualified to attempt without utilizing hypnosis. That is, if one is not a licensed phychotherapist, one should not attempt hypnotherapy. There are three stages of hypnosis: (a) induction/deepening, (b) utilization and (c) dehypnotization. The first and third stages are easy to learn. What you do in utilization is crucial. Therefore, it must be stressed that one should not indiscriminantly use hypnosis as a panacea for all ills. Hypnotherapy has been shown to improve the dyslexic symptoms of 75% of the child patients in one study (Crasilneck & Hall, 1975). However, the results for all forms of mental handicaps have been equivocal.

Chiasson (1984) has utilized hypnosis for numerous conditions including multiple sclerosis, alateral sclerosis, headaches, essential hypertension and perni cious anemia. Hypnosis can also be used for physical rehabilitation in numerous ways. It has facilitated speech recovery and relieved spasms and can speed up muscle coordination. Chiasson reported:

> "The best story I can mention relates to Dr. Milton Erickson. After his second attack of polio, he received a telephone call from two neurologists who had conducted an examination. He was told he would not be able to walk and he would not be able to use his right arm. He replied, "You darn fool. How do you think I got over to the phone, and what do you think I am holding it with"?

Carl and Stephanie Simonton have been conducting some very interesting research with cancer patients. These researchers have the patients utilize hypnosis and visualization to help their natural immune systems to combat the metastisis of the disease. The Simontons have seen significant remissions in some of their patients.

Use of hypnosis with severley disturbed patients has been equivocal support in the literature. It seems that control is the critical concern and with proper safeguards the use of hypnosis with these clients is indicated. However, as stated earlier this is clearly out the domain of an unqualified professional. Hypnosis could be contraindicated with many of these patients.

Chemical dependency has qualities of both an addiction and a habit. The degree of each depends upon the abuse substance. Hypnosis can be used to minimize addictive withdrawal symptoms or can be directed toward changing the habit pattern. In either case, hypnosis is rarely indicated as the treatment of choice for alcoholism or drug dependency. Rather, it should be employed as one therapeutic modality in a comprehensive treatment program.

Less is known about the use of hypnosis with the other above mentioned populations and will not be addressed in this paper.

Auto-hypnosis: How to Implement

When you first learn self-hypnosis it is best way to learn is to have a qualified person teach you this valuable skill. You can determine who is qualified by utilizing the qualification already mentioned in this paper. That is, one should not attempt anything in hypnosis that he is not qualified to do out of hypnosis. Therefore, a qualified psychologist, physician, dentist or other qualified health care professional can help you. If you are unsure of the hypnotist's qualifications then ask her about them. The American Society of Clinical Hypnosis (ASCH) maintains a registry of qualified individuals or in this state the Utah Society of Clinical Hypnosis (USCH) can also refer to competent individuals. Learning to hypnotize yourself from a book can sometimes be difficult. Hammond (1984) has written an excellent book entitled Manual for Self-Hypnosis. In this book, he divides learning hypnosis into four steps. Step one is the induction phase, followed by the deepening stage, trance work and return to pleasant imagery and awakening. This is an excellent manual for introducing an individual to self-hypnosis.

One of the best models for learning self-hypnosis is called Modified Autogenic Training (MAT) (Krenz, 1983). Modified Autogenic Training combines Schultz's Standard Autogenic Training (SAT) with breathing exercises that utilize natural breathing cycles to increase relaxation effects. Krenz (1983) suggests that the MAT training can take place either in a sitting or lying position. The client should take three deep exhalations and ask himself if any part of his body is uncomfortable. If so, then one should reposition the uncomfortable part and take three more deep exhalations before proceeding. Krenz then guides the client through a seven-week program of progressive exercises concentrating on heaviness of limbs, warmth of limbs, heartbeat, respiration, warm body center and pleasantly cool forehead. This systematic 7-week program is an excellent way to introduce people to a therapeutic program in relaxation. MAT is a form of self-hypnosis, however, it was developed as a teaching model for relaxation and not a medical model. The "healthy" individual does not need to approach hypnosis through a medical model.

Another aspect of stress management in therapeutic recreation that can be utilized is to teach a person to utilize several short mini-trances each day. Breathing patterns are a natural way to implement a breathing program and an excellent guide to read is Manual on Respiration for Relaxation, Invigoration, and Special Accomplishment (Jencks, 1974).

Summary

It is important to remember that hypnosis is a very valuable tool in the hands of the competent professional. This paper does not directly address stage hypnotism. In fact, this author finds this type of abuse of hypnosis as offensive and unethical. What this paper has attempted to do is to alleviate some common fears surrounding the therapeutic use of hypnosis and to promote exploration by other health care professionals into possible use as an adjunct to already existing programs such as therapeutic recreation. Hypnosis is not a panacea for all ills. A trained, qualified individual should supervise the hypnotic work with most populations in therapeutic recreation. However, it is up to the qualified individuals in the field to obtain training in hypnosis. Several organizations have been studying hypnosis for many years. The field is finding new scientific information each day. In the right hands hypnosis can be beneficial to many people. The final purpose of this paper was to encourage further exploration by reading several of the mentioned books and papers on this exciting subject.

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IMPACT FEES FOR PARKS ANO RECREATION

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The Nightmare

It's night time and the late summer breeze gently floats through the window and the moon outlines the figure of a person flashing through nightmares as rest does not come. It's typical for one in this line of work to experience this nightly rush of ghosts and haughting hordes of demons. What type of work would generate such discomfort and what do these night time visitors want? For the parks and recreation professional, the answer is easy -- the ghost is the figure of an empty budget, the haughting hordes are all those programs and projects that scream for consideration and the nightmare is forever torchering the administrator with these words: Where are you going to get the money? Where are you going to get the money?

The Ghost-Buster

As the parks and recreation administrator awakes to his own screams of, "I don't know, I just don't know" as he falls out of bed, lunging for the phone. The administrator wife awakened by this all to physical situation says, "Who are you going to call?" And the parks and recreation professional says, "Who else, Ghost-Busters."

Definitions of Impact Fees

One of the new and innovative "ghost-busters" available to the parks and recreation governmental setting in the concept of impact fees. An Impact Fee is a one time assessment made on the construction of a new house, commercial building, condominium, apartment structure, public building or mobile home area. The developer or builder of this structure is required to pay a fee as part of the "permission processing procedure" to help off set the impact that the users of that structure will have on the parks and recreation of that area. For example a real estate developer is putting together a 90 unit home site sub-division in a newly developed area of the community. As part of the legal proun to receive permits to build their 90 housing units, the developer pays an impact fee for parks and recreation of $200 per housing unit. The $18,000 generated from these fees goes into a special impact fee account for that sub-division area. The parks and recreation department now has available $18,000 to purchase park land and develop the sit for use by the local residents or that sub-division area. Generally, of course, the developer would pass the impact fee along to the purchaser of the home as part of the first purchase price.

Impact Fee Oevelopment

For a local community to develop an Impact Fee system requires a great deal of legal development and public impact, and of course, a commitment by local political leaders. The specific legal development for such a system would be peculiar for that community, however, an impact fee system would follow very closely the wording of a "public access to city services" laws already existing in the community. An example of a fee structure might be as follows:

IMPACT FEE GUIOELINES					
PUBLIC SERVICE	FEE SCHEOULE				
	Housing Unit	Commercial Building	Public/ Church Building	Mobile Home/ RVP	Motel/ Apart-ments
Power, Sewer, Water	$750	$1,500	$3,000	$750 first $300 addit.	$750 first $300 addit.
Roadways	$300	$500	$500	$300	$300
Parks and Recreation Etc.	$200	$200	$200	$200	$200

Developers and home builders feel concerned about appropriations for public services occurring in this fashion however, it makes sense that those for whom services are developed pay the primary bulk of those costs.

IMPACT FEE RATIONALE

There are several positive aspects to the rationale behind impact fees and a few negative concerns. The following chart details those positive features.

POSITIVE RATIONALE BEHINO IMPACT FEES
1. Charge only for new development within a specific area of the community.
2. Charge only the primary users of the new parks and recreation area (local residents).
3. Charge is "hidden" in the sense that its built within the cost of the structure.
4. Positive public attitude regarding charges to new developments rather than community wide.
5. Charges serve as guaranteed monies for development costs for that area.
6. Collected fees can be used with "freedom" by p/r department as long as used for that area.
7. The impact of new developments on needed parks and recreation services are controlled.
8. The fees allow for all residents to be charged equally, not based on value of structure.
9. Theoretically, the development of new parks and recreation services in the area will increase the actual dollar value of the area.
10. The fee does not effect the current residents of the community only new developments.

There exists some concern regarding impact fees as identified below:

POSSIBLE CONCERNS REGARDING IMPACT FEES

1. The cost is usually passed-on to the home buyer rather than aborsed by builder as a cost.
2. All development units would pay for the parks and recreation services with some choosing not to use those services.
3. Depending on the neighborhood, increased or alter impact fees may be reeded. (High costs of land, major modifications, etc.)
4. Some argue a percent of protected home value system is more fair for basing the impact fee structure.

With the nightmare of lack of money always haughting the parks and recreation professional, the concept of Impact Fees to help "bust" those ghosts may be a real solution to the financial crisis of the department.

DEVELOPING A FAMILY PHILOSOPHY OF RECREATION

Mike Vander Griend, Parks and Recreation, Utah State University

I had a delightful conversation with an old high school chum this past summer. Davidson (name not changed) is a highly successful insurance manager and salesman in the Tri-Cities area of the State of Washington. However, that day we were not talking about insurance but sports. What started out as being a reminiscence for us of basketball stardom long ago quickly turned into the present-day challenges of bringing up two teenagers in today's "little league wars."

Now, mind you, Davidson wasn't mad as he talked about the pros and cons of little league. What he did relate, however, was his "acquired personal philosophy" on sports, recreation, little league, and kids in general.

I was pleased! You see, I teach a recreation philosophy class at Utah State. (Davidson didn't know this at the time.) What Davidson learned in the trenches of little league coaching and parental guidance, I teach to my students in an upper division parks and recreation management class.

Hopefully, this class gives the students the opportunity and challenge to develop a personal philosophy on a variety of issues of importance in the parks and recreation area. Davidson had taken this process one step further. He had developed a personal recreation/sports philosophy for his family, particularly his two sons.

Just how important is it for family leaders to develop a recreation philosophy for the family unit? To us in the recreation field, as professionals and practitioners, having parents develop personalized recreational philosophies may be a cornerstone for successful parenting. After all, the old phrase, "the family that plays together, stays together," may ring as a truth more today than ever.

What is involved in developing a personal philosophy of recreation for the family? Perhaps the use of the old "newspapers clothesline," i.e., who, what, when, where, why and how could help us determine our needs.

Who

You say this is logically answered. Since this is a "family philosophy" the "who" would include only the immediate family. This may be true. However, the "who" may also include eight other little leagers, one opposing tennis player, or two other beach volleyball teammates. In other words, you as the coordinator of your family's recreation direct your children/family into various recreational groups. And, each group will bring different problems, etc. to your family. What you choose to include as your children's recreational boundaries (teams, etc.) has a direct bearing on what your family will learn. Do you want them to learn team sports, i.e., self reliance, etc.? What does your recreational philosophy say about the "who" you want involved? It certainly could affect your children.

What

What types of recreation are you going to suggest for your family? Will they be passive (T.V., spectators) or active/creative (the participator, artist) or somewhere inbetween. What we recreation professionals do know in our studies and research is that recreational pursuits that lean toward the active/creative seem to have a much more positive effect on the individual's psyche. Another way of looking at this is to say that those who take a run/swim/walk/hike, etc., seem to feel better about themselves than those who are watching lots of T.V. ("prime" example of passive mode.) You as the creator of the "what" type of recreation is best for your family must choose between creative and passive activities. Unfortunately, sometimes it's easier to flop down in front of the T.V. instead of building a kite and flying it in the neighborhood park. The choice is ours as we develop our family recreation philosophy.

When

The "when" in our recreational philosophy includes the time commitment we are allowing for our family recreation. This may include only the yearly family vacation as existed in my family - dad was a workaholic - to someone like the local fanatic recreationists who find a play or game period daily. My friend Davidson has two sons. When the little league and soccer league seasons overlap during the summer, Davidson has made a time commitment (when) which includes ushering his boys nightly to one if not two games. Davidson's recreation philosophy includes a daily time commitment to his family. He finds this commitment worthwhile and fun. You have to decide the importance of recreation on a daily, weekly, monthly, or yearly basis. This is your personal "when" commitment to recreation.

Where

If you have a "famous" backyard (where) as some of my associates do, your family doesn't need to leave home, and perhaps the neighborhood will be rushing to your doorstep. Or you may send your children to the local municipal center. The "where" in your recreational philosophy may be important for one reason - supervision. Some folks conveniently drop their children at the local pool to have others "babysit." Other parents prefer the challenge and the joy involved in being "where" the "where" is. The supervision of their family's recreation is important to them and they want total involvement in the teaching and learning phase.

Why and How

Perhaps the last two newspaperman's questions, the "why" and "how" of a family recreation philosophy, are the most important. You may have heard the phrase, "I never saw my children grow up. I was too busy at the time." Or, "I missed my children's formative years altogether." Somewhere, somehow, many parents today are making a commitment to be a part of their family's recreation education by developing a planned philosophy. The "whys" are very prominent. Family cohesiveness. Family growth. Joy. Love. Being the wholistic parent. The "hows" become very simple. A time commitment. Perhaps a monetary commitment if "time is money."

Many parents today seek the challenge of developing and committing to a recreational philosophy. We as recreational professionals applaud such efforts. It was much more fun talking recreation philosophies than insurance with my friend, Davidson. To me he was an enlightened parent who understood the importance of quality recreation in his family's life. I salute him.

OUTDOOR RECREATION LEADERSHIP: THE LIMITS OF RESPONSIBILITY

Daniel L. Dustin, San Diego State University

Abstract

Sooner or later most outdoor recreation leaders will be faced with some form of insubordination by a group member(s). How the leader responds to that situation is the subject of this paper. First I recount an incident that happened to me while leading a group of backpackers in Kings Canyon National Park. Then I discuss t. implications of that incident for those who lead similar outings. Finally I assess the outdoor recreation leader's limits of responsibility for the welfare of others in the wilderness.

Introduction

It started out innocently enough. I was leading five inexperienced backpackers into the wilderness beyond Road's End in California's Kings Canyon National Park. The weeklong outing was to be the culmination of an intensive course in wilderness management, a course that began in the classroom at San Diego State University and that now would end in the wilderness itself. What a great opportunity to make the academic subject matter come alive. What a great opportunity to illustrate the course's relevance to the world beyond the classroom.

I took all the necessary precautions. I drilled the students on the essentials of expedition behavior. I talked about one for all and all for one. I talked about the mountains, the weather, the hazards. I wasn't about to leave anything to chance. Then, to top it off, I recruited a co-leader. Five students, two leaders. "When it comes to backcountry supervision," I reassured the students, "I'm a mother hen."

It was an ambitious itinerary to be sure. We were going to do the Rae Lakes loop, a 45 mile round trip in the heart of the Sierra Nevada. We started from Cedar Grove (4600') the first morning and camped that night at Charlotte Creek(7000') about seven miles along the Bubbs Creek Trail. No problem--a few sore muscles, some "hot" spots--the kinds of things you have to expect when city folk take to the high country. But that night in the sleeping bags the aches and pains gave way to a pleasant numbness and we all slept like logs.

The second morning was full of good spirits. Our destination was Vidette Meadows(9600') where the Bubbs Creek Trail joins the John Muir Trail. Again it would only be a six or seven mile day so that we could acclimatize ourselves to the altitude, so that we could work on our breathing, our pace, and our legs. Good planning on my part, I thought. We'd ease into this adventure slowly and build up our stamina and endurance. Then, on the third day, we'd be ready to tackle Glen Pass(11,980').

The Glen Pass day was a tester. The route to the pass was snow covered and we had to edge our way upward. There wasn't much risk involved. It was just a matter of inching along at a snail's pace to the top. Then we dropped down to Rae Lakes and a beautiful campsite by the water's edge. We made camp, ate, and reflected on a hard day's work. There were even some snowflakes to add a magical touch to the late afternoon. I couldn't have asked for more.

As it turned out, the negotiation of Glen Pass was an important psychological juncture in the outing. Up until its crossing the pass had represented the principal goal, the trip's summit. Up until that time, as the leader, I had been shown considerable deference. I was asked questions. My advice was followed. I was needed. But now there was a marked change in four of the group members. They were more self-assured--no--they were downright cocky. In their eyes they had met the test.

This attitude shift became particularly apparent on the fourth day when we walked six miles from Rae Lakes(10,500 to Woods Creek(8,500'). Since we had handled the trip so well, the foursome wondered, couldn't we hike all the way out on the fifth day instead of taking two more days as originally planned? No, I explained patiently, we couldn't. One of our party had not fared so well on the hike and we had a duty to adjust the pace of the group to meet his requirements. Moreover, hiking all the way out on the fifth day would mean a 17 mile trek descending from 8,500' to 4,600'. That would be hard on all of us. Besides, what was the rush? We were in God's country. One didn't get these chances very often. We might as well make the most of it. Anyway, we were a group, a unit. One for all and all for one. Did everyone understand? Nodding heads reassured me.

After helping everyone ford Woods Creek on the fifth morning, I went over the topo map with the group to make sure they understood that we would be spending the fifth night at Paradise Valley about halfway back to Road's End. I then allowed the faster walkers to begin at their own pace with the understanding that we would rendezvous for lunch where Woods Creek joins the South Fork of the Kings River. My co-leader and I then stayed back to hike with the one member that was having trouble.

I could tell at lunch time that the four malcontents were still antsy. We couldn't find a stopping place to suit them; too many mosquitoes here, too much sun there. How about if we just kept moving? "No," I said firmly, "there's no point in hurrying. We're only going four more miles today. Slow down. Relax. Enjoy the scenery." Then I let them go again.

Well, to make a long story short, that was the last I saw of the four people who headed out in front of me. They did not stop at Paradise Valley. They hiked all the way out. It was not a case of misunderstanding my instructions. It was a case of ignoring them.(As fate would have it, one of the foursome discovered blood in his urine about three miles from Road's End, panicked, hurried to the Cedar Grove Ranger Station, consulted with a Park Service EMT, and then took an ambulance about 80 miles to Fresno, only to be treated briefly in a hospital emergency room before being put on a bus back to San Diego.)

In the meantime, I arrived at Paradise Valley with the co-leader and the one remaining student. Clearly, we had been left behind. What to do? The fellow with us was fatigued and sore. He could not be expected to walk an additional eight miles. I considered the options I could leave my two hiking partners at Paradise Valley and go all the way out to make sure everybody else was okay. I could send the co-leader ahead. Or the three of us could stay the night at Paradise Valley and walk out the following day as planned.

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I chose the last option. Mind you, I was not comfortable with my decision. I still felt responsible for the others even though they had abandoned me. If something were to happen to any one of them, regardless of the issue of legal liability, I would hold myself responsible. Psychologically, I was between a rock and a hard place.

After a fitful night at Paradise Valley, what was left of our group hiked out to Road's End. There we found three people waiting for us. They had spent the night sleeping next to the university van. They began to explain the fate of the fourth backpacker--"But why," I interrupted, "did you leave us?" No reason really. They were simply anxious to get back to civilization.

Implications for Others

In retrospect, it would be easy to admonish myself and talk about all those preventive measures that group leaders should take to make sure incidents like the one described above don't happen to them. Know your group! Never allow anyone but the leader or co-leader to take the lead! And so on. But the reality is that even the most cautious leader could be faced with a similar situation if a group member simply chose to be insubordinate. Leading others into the wilderness, I've decided, is an inherently risky business.

My experience with this group of backpackers has caused me to rethink the nature of the relationship between an outdoor recreation leader and his or her charges. Just what are the limits of the leader's responsibilities for others in the wilderness? How should a troublemaker be dealt with? When is a group no longer a group? And when can a leader feel confident that obligations to others have been met?

The Limits of Responsibility

I do not pretend to have all the answers to these questions. Moreover, I am quite sure, whatever the answers are, that they must vary from situation to situation depending on such factors as age of the participants, skill levels, and previous experience. But I am also sure that in a general sense the key issue in assessing the outdoor recreation leader's limits of responsibility hinges on clear communication. Do the group members understand exactly what is expected of them? Do they understand specifically why they are asked to act in certain ways? Do they understand precisely what is meant by good expedition behavior? To the extent that an outdoor leader can answer "yes" to these questions, it seems to me the leadership obligation has been met. To the extent that the understanding is less than complete because of faulty communication on the part of the leader, I think that person must bear some responsibility for subsequent mishaps.

There is an old adage to the effect that we should not feel responsible for things over which we have no control. While I agree with that saying in principle, I also know how difficult it is to take comfort in that saying in practice. Outdoor recreation leaders typically are excited about introducing others to the wilderness, about sharing in the discovery of new perspectives that the wilderness has to offer. So when someone in the group decides that the wilderness is not so exciting, that the perspective can be lived without, it is especially disconcerting for the outdoor leader who sees the wilderness in such a different light. And when that same someone voices a desire to head back to civilization early--well--that's the time for the leader to practice clear communication once more, and then to hope for the best.

RISK ACTIVITIES AT ST. CLOUD STATE UNIVERSITY[1]

Dennis Nichols, St. Cloud State University

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine the perception students at St. Cloud State University (SCSU) had regarding participation and interest in low and high risk outdoor activities. From the 339 students responding, a difference was noted in regards to participation in low risk activities compared to high risk activities.

Introduction

Many of our colleges and universities offer some type of outdoor activity, whether it's through the school's curriculum or through the student union center. Hiking, fishing, skiing, canoeing, and rock climbing are a few of the countless varieties of outdoor activities college students engage in. Literally hundreds of thousands of students participate in these and many other types of activities every year.

Outdoor recreational activities can be a valuable addition to the college unions and physical education programs, as well as to other recreational agencies at all levels. Outdoor recreational pursuits are self-justifying in any program of this nature because the activities provide people with inherently meaningful experiences; outdoor activities can be considered as an end in themselves and do not have to be justified as a means to some particular end. Rock climbing, for example, does not have to be justified on the basis that it developes strength or teamwork.

Many programs that include outdoor recreational activities have tried to justify the activities on the basis of a variety of benefits that supposedly occur from participation in the activities that are supposed to continue into later life: compassion, emotional security, self-confidence, cooperation, self-discovery, and human renewal.

Although many of these benefits do occur from participation in outdoor activities, these activities do not have to be justified on the basis of self-improvements that may or may not occur in every case. Outdoor recreation can be justified simply on the grounds that the activities are a form of play and that active play is just as important as any other part of a person's life.

A well-rounded outdoor center full of opportunities for outdoor activities is vital to the physical, mental, and social fitness of the student, and in addition to those common attributes, simply having a good time is important.

Statement of the Problem

This feasibility study attempted to determine the perception students at St. Cloud State University had regarding participation and interest in low and high risk outdoor activities.

Definitions

The following list defines the terms used within this study:

High Risk - refers to high potential danger to the individual. High risk activities would include: whitewater rafting, whitewater kayaking, whitewater canoeing, mountaineering, hang gliding, sky diving, alpine skiing, winter camping, scuba diving, ice climbing, rock climbing, archery, and hunting.

Low Risk - refers to low potential danger to the individual. Low risk activities include: hiking, fishing, camping, canoeing, nordic skiing, photography, backpacking, bicycling, sailing, spelunking, ice skating, and swimming.

Participation - refers to any activity the student has engaged in during the past and what activity the student engages in currently.

Interest - refers to the activity students would like to see offered at SCSU, whether in the Physical Education Department or in the Student Union Outdoor Center.

Presentation of Data

In establishing the methodological approach for this study, a sample of freshman, sophomores, juniors, seniors, and graduate students were randomly selected from St. Cloud State University in St. Cloud, Minnesota. Four-hundred students were administered the questionnaire and 339 questionnaires were returned. Of the 339 respondents, 163 were male and 175 were female. The majority of the respondents (87.3%) were between the ages of 18-23 and 307 of the 339 respondents were single.

The respondents were asked in the study to list the top three activities they participated in most, as well as what three activities they were interested in having SCSU offer the student body. The tables below represent the responses given, but not by a 1st, 2nd, or 3rd ranking. For example, bicycling was tabulated as the low risk activity receiving the most responses for participation but it does not necessarily represent the activity chosen most as the number one activity participated in by the respondents.

Much of the data is represented by an "other" category. The respondents listed activities such as motocross, rugby, tennis, birdwatching, and jogging to fulfill this category. The respondents did not differentiate between low risk activities or high risk activities. Although the "other" category often displays high figures, the activities are widespread and do not singly represent high figures for that particular activity.

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Table 1 shows the total population number and percentage of responses for current participation in low risk activities.

TABLE 1
Participation in Low Risk Activities

Activity	Count	Percent of Responses
Hiking	54	5.6
Fishing	112	11.6
Camping	125	12.9
Canoeing	46	4.8
Nordic Skiing	41	4.2
Water Skiing	87	9.0
Photogrsphy	42	4.3
Backpacking	19	2.0
Bicycling	176	18.2
Sailing	14	1.4
Spelunking	1	.1
Ice Skating	72	7.4
Swimming	109	11.3
Other	69	7.1
Total	967	100.0

Table 1 indicates that the total population sampled gave 967 responses to the multi-response questions for low risk activities.

Activities receiving the most responses were bicycling with 176 for 18.2 percent, camping with 125 for 12.9 percent, and fishing with 112 responses for 11.6 percent. Activities responded to the least were spelunking with 1 response for .1 percent, sailing with 14 for 1.4 percent, and backpacking with 19 for 2.0 percent.

Table 2 shows the total population number and percentage of responses to current participation in high risk activitiss.

TABLE 2

Participation in High Risk Activities

Activity	Count	Percent of Responses
Whitewater Rafting	5	.7
Whitewater Kayaking	1	.1
Whitewater Canoeing	14	2.0
Mountaineering	15	2.1
Hang Gliding	4	.6
Sky Diving	6	.8
Alpine Skiing	122	17.2
Winter Camping	17	2.4
Scuba Diving	19	2.7
Ice Climbing	3	.4
Rock Climbing	45	6.3
Archery	57	8.0
Hunting	90	12.7
Other	312	43.9
Total	712	100.0

Table 2 indicates that the total population sampled gave 712 responses in regards to their participation in high risk activities.

Of the 712 responses given, other activities not listed in the survey were chosen by the respondents 312 times for a 43.9 percentage. It should be noted that activities chosen in the "other" category were not always high risk activities or low risk activities. Examples of these activities are motorcross, aviation, and birdwatching. These were followed by alpine skiing, which was selected by the respondents 122 times for a 17.2 percentage and hunting with a 12.7 percent response total. Activities receiving low percentages of responses included whitewater kayaking with 1 response for .1 percent, ice climbing with 3 responses for .4 percent, and hang gliding with 4 responses for .6 percent.

Table 3 shows the total population's number of responses and percentages for low risk activities the respondents would like offered at St. Cloud State University.

TABLE 3
Interest in Low Risk Activities

Activity	Count	Percent of Responses
Hiking	50	6.1
Fishing	58	7.0
Camping	62	7.5
Canoeing	75	9.1
Nordic Skiing	42	5.1
Water Skiing	96	11.7
Photography	25	3.0
Backpacking	64	7.8
Bicycling	34	4.1
Sailing	130	15.8
Spelunking	46	5.6
Ice Skating	43	5.2
Swimming	15	1.8
Other	84	10.2
Total	824	100.0

Of the 824 responses in low risk activities, 130 (15.8%) responses were given for sailing as the low risk activity that students wanted offered most by St. Cloud State University. This was followed by water skiing with a 11.7 percent response and canoeing with a 9.1 percent response.

Activities responded to the least were swimming with a 1.8 percent response, photography with a 3.0 percent response, and bicycling with a 4.1 percent response.

Table 4 shows the total populations' number of responses and percentages for high risk activities the respondents would like offered at St. Cloud State University.

TABLE 4
Interest in High Risk Activities

Activity	Count	Percent of Responses
Whitewater Rafting	58	7.6
Whitewater Kayaking	25	3.3
Whitewater Canoeing	42	5.5
Mountaineering	35	4.6
Hang Gliding	124	16.2
Sky Diving	116	15.1

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Table 4, Continued:

Activity	Count	Percent of Responses
Alpine Skiing	24	3.1
Winter Camping	35	4.6
Scuba Diving	79	10.3
Ice Climbing	14	1.8
Rock Climbing	51	6.7
Archery	30	3.9
Hunting	24	3.1
Other	109	14.2
Total	766	100.0

Of the 766 responses for high risk activities, respondents indicated that the greatest interest was in hang gliding which received 124 responses for 16.2 percent. This was followed by sky diving with 116 responses for 15.1 percent and other activities not mentioned in the survey with 109 responses for 14.2 percent.

The high risk activities selected as those with the lowest interest from respondents were ice climbing with only 14 responses for 1.8 percent, and alpine skiing and hunting with 24 responses each for 3.1 percent.

Conclusions

The following conclusions are the result of the findings found in the previous tables. These conclusions answer the statement of the problem.

A difference was noted in regards to participation in low risk activities compared to high risk activities. Low risk activities received 967 responses for participation, whereas high risk activities received only 712 responses; 312 of those responses were in the "other" category, which when marked was not necessarily a high risk activity. Low risk activities participated in the most were bicycling, camping, and fishing, respectively. High risk activities participated in the most were alpine skiing, hunting, and archery, respectively.

The response for interest in low risk activities compared to high risk activities was not significantly different. There were 824 responses for low risk activities with sailing, water skiing, and canoeing being the activities chosen most. High risk activities received 766 responses with hang gliding, sky diving, and scuba diving generating the most interest from the respondents.

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[1]Dennis Nichols, "Risk Activities at St. Cloud State University," A Curriculum Feasibility Study at St. Cloud State University, 1985.

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Accident Reports
Tools for Sound Management

Dr. G. Dee Hardman
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Abstract

Little has been written concerning the use of accident report forms as a management aid in recreation services. It is the author's premise that accident reports can be useful in eliminating liability, provided they contain certain information and are used properly.

Introduction

Accurate records are indicative of the professionalism of any corporation, especially where government services are concerned. Records and reports reflect the productivity, growth, and services provided by the corporation. This is especially true when accidents to visitors in recreation facilities and areas are concerned. One way of gauging this service is through the use of accident reports. Accident reports provide a basis for action to alleviate hazards, thus enabling the recreation entity to provide safer recreation opportunities for the populace.

The state sets the parameters in accident reporting. To be functional, an accident report form should be based on three criteria, basically: First, what information is wanted; second, why the information is wanted; and third, what is to be done with the information once it is obtained.

What Information is Wanted

Various formats for accident report forms exist, as they must reflect the needs of the agency. Bellevan (1976) recommends a block style form as being more professional, as it provides for quick reference to material in the report. She cautions against the use of bootleg forms, which are identified as forms borrowed from another agency, and simply given a different code number. This type of form does not reflect the real needs of the agency, and the act is definitely less than professional.

Although it is often presumed that accident reports request adequate information, several features are essential yet often ommitted:

a. The telephone n mber of the injured party should be included. On occasion, circumstances may prevent the acquisition of all necessary information. Including the phone number of the injured party allows a convenient contact for additional information, and also saves administration time.
b. The form should be simple, yet complete, to provide for convenient review.
c. The report should provide sufficient space for a detailed description of the area in which the accident occurred, or to describe the circumstances precipitating the incident. In too many cases, especially in large natural areas, the site identified is so large that it is d ult, if not impossible, to ascertain the exact location of the incident from the sketchy information provided on the form. An example of this situation would be an incident on a hiking trail in a large park.
d. The name and position of the person preparing the report needs to be included. This individual can be contacted should further information or clarity of the report be necessary.

Other information which would be useful if provided on the form include:

a. The name of the insurance company of the injured party. This would accommodate a smooth flow of information in the event of litigation, and would save time. If the form is to request the name of the insurance company of the injured party, consideration might be given to having a form equipped with a perforated stub. Both form and stub would be numbered. The stub would be given to the victim or guardian to present to the insurance company. This would serve to streamline the process of insurance claims.
b. A coded body chart. Some forms include such a chart, as it provides a quick visual reference to the area of the body injured.
c. Procedures should mandate one form per visitor. Occasionally, one form will have injuries to two or more people on it, and space is not sufficient to identify the injury with the appropriate visitor, creating confusion in interpreting the report. In addition, an inaccurate tabulation of accidents can result.

In selecting a form for use, the agency might wish to consider computerizing the results for analysis at a future date. If computerization is determined to be the desired procedure, a system for coding information must be developed to facilitate accurate recording of that material. The form should be reviewed periodically to ascertain of sufficient detail is provided to accommodate clarity of understanding, and aid the agency to meet its aims, goals, and objectives in programming and safety.

Some accident reports include a question asking what could have been done to prevent the accident. This type of information is a spawning bed for lawsuits, as it can be interpreted as an admission of negligence. If equipment or facilities are not safe, this should be contained in a maintenance or inspection report. As equipment and facilities should be inspected on a weekly to daily basis, this cause for accidents should be virtually non-existant. If personnel manifest behavior that might contribute to an accident, that behavior should be remedied either in consultation with a superior, or in a staff meeting. An accident report is not the place to have the inappropriate behavior surface. Therefore, if the program is being provided as it should be, a question addressing prevention is not needed on the report.

An additional consideration is to require photos of the accident site. This is most beneficial in natural areas, and can help establish assumed risk on the visitors part, in some instances.

Why the Information is Wanted

The need to investigate and report accidents is crucial to the success of recreation programs. Canadian Labour (1978) elaborates on this responsibility as follows:

> Investigation and inspection are essential in a continuing accident prevention program. Prompt investigation of an accident should prevent a repetition. Reports should be written for education and proof that will lead to effective action. A written report provides a record of what accident or unhealthy conditions exist and when and by whom they were reported and that a follow-up took place.

This attitude is in concert with Hall (1971), who writes of the need for a "Citizen Safety Program." After indicating the paucity of information relative to "recreation" injury and death, as it pertains to state parks, he justifies the need for an accident reporting and safety program:

> An effective and operational feedback loop in the reporting system is required to provide accurate, factual data upon which to establish future accident prevention decisions.

Accident reports, then, serve as a reliable guide for preventing accidents. If used properly, over a period of time, they identify the age group most often involved in accidents, the type of accidents which appear to be most prevalent, and the locations and conditions in which accidents occur. Therefore, they become a valuable administrative resource. It is important that the person filling out the report take time to be thorough and complete.

What is to be Done with the Information

Unless accident reports are used as an aid to management, filling them out becomes a needless time expenditure. Modern Office Procedure (1978), indicates that accident reports should be kept on file for a period of thirty years after a settlement occurs. This applies only in the event of a lawsuit. Even if no litigation results from an accident, sound management practices dictate that the reports should be kept on file for a period of five years, thus providing information on trends and accident types, and in some instances may provide the basis for a hazard file, which identifies dangerous conditions at the facility.

The five year retention span is also functional for agency protection as the statute of limitations of a state may prevent lawsuit after a given period of time. For example, the Illinois Revised Statutes (1979 State Bar Edition) provides that:

> No civil action may be commenced in any court against a local entity for any injury unless it is commenced within two years from the date that the injury was received or the cause of the action accrued.

It should be noted that the statute as quoted may not apply to minors, as they often can file suit when they reach adulthood, usually 18 or 21. This fact, in and of itself, justifies retention of reports for a period exceeding five years, possibly extending to twenty years and beyond.

A final consideration is to maintain two files of all accidents reported. This would remedy misplaced or lost reports. Follow-up must be performed to insure that all reports are completed in duplicate; and that the second file is separate from the first. If a report is needed from the first file, and for some reason cannot be found, a copy is available in the back-up file. As time has a tendency to diminish accuracy in recall, the appropriate details of the incident would be readily available.

If accident reports can be used functionally, lawsuits will be diminished, and a safer and more enjoyable recreation experience will be had by all who visit our programs and facilities; particularly since safety of the visitor should be paramount in our program offerings.

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UTAH YOUTH SPEAK OUT ON MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY

This poll of Utah youth is the first of a series to be conducted by the Office of Youth Research and Development in the Department of Recreation Management and Youth Leadership at Brigham Young University. The topic of marriage and the family was selected as the theme of the first study, because of our rapidly changing society and the pressures it is placing on the stability of the family. The poll was designed to see if today's youth anticipate having homes and families similar to the ones they experience in the 1980's, or whether they want something different. Also of concern was the relationship between parent and youth; does the model of the parent have an effect on how youth expect they will act as parents? In the following sections are presented: 1) Background research on similar issues, 2) Methods used to complete this study, 3) Results and discussion of each of the ten questions, and 4) Summary of the findings.

Background

Among the issues addressed by research over the past decade concerning youth, marriage and the family, which are of interest in this study are; peer influences on youth versus family influences, rules parents impose on youth, youth attitudes towards work after marriage, family role models, and attitudes toward marriage.

Youth and the Family

Youth's rights in the family - youth have the right to be an individual, the right of youth to be his/her own person. For some this might mean living at home and being supported, for others this might mean living separately. Youth have the right to be a functioning part of the family. As members of families, youth have the right to know parental and family concerns, to know how the family is allocating its resources; to know family goals and ambitions; to interact on the level of decision-making and management, to manage money, time, and energy in the protected environment of the family, youth have a right to a mother and father who have a sense of worth and competance, who have the time and energy for children. Youth have the right to prime time with parents and other adults.[1]

Youths attitudes about the condition of their homes was revealed in a study conducted in Minnesota in 1972. In a study of 300 high school students in the Twin Cities of Minnesota they were asked in one word to describe their homes. Fifty percent gave negative responses- "hell," "mess," "existence." The other 50 percent equally divided their answers in neutral and positive responses like "great," "fun," "together," "contented," "loving," "good."[2]

When asked what one thing would you change in your family and how?, the answers ranged from "economic status" among those that were deprived to all the aspects of communication. Even those who think of their families as being "happy" felt that there could be more togetherness if there were only more communication. If the comment was geared to one particular parent, it was most often the father's strictness or drinking or stubbornness that should be changed. Children of separated parents desired reunions or a closer unity of the existing family.[3]

What we see now in the ideals of our youth is very western, very recent, and very much related to an affluence which allows the mental freedom to go beyond physical needs. The traditional family model is not one of people talking freely, where the individual feels accepted. The traditional family is almost strictly a regulatory unit which is concerned with the "how to's" and not personal fulfillment.[4]

The transition from agricultural to urban society, a mushrooming population, greater bureaucratization, increased cultural heterogeneity and many other factors have metemorphosized the structure of our society. The family has traditionally been the shock absorber for social change; now subjected to enormous pressure from every direction, it has sometimes faltered, depriving many people of their primary source of emotional support. Alternative lifestyles seem a reaction to the absence of support traditionally provided by the family - they offer a refuge from isolation. Some people move toward less structured, more tribal relationships, in apparent retaliation against a mechanized society.[5]

Research conducted at the Center for Youth development and Research on <u>Youth and the Family</u> noted the following concerns:

1. Change is so rapid and so unprecedented today that no one seems to be sure just what kind of world youth should be prepared for, or the form the family will take on in the future.
2. During adolescense, tremendous anxiety develops on the part of both parents and children and we don't know how to handle it. The entire family undergoes a tremendous upheaval when the children reach adolescence because the power system within the family alters and the absolute changes which the future holds are clearly foreseen. Many adults are threatened when adolescents start challenging them on their values and many adolescents are disturbed to find that their parents are imperfect.
3. Is there an absolute right way to parent? Proper parenting seems to depend on what you want for your child.
4. We do not know much about the family, research needs to be done on the subject. The family is constantly changing and with society.[6]

Our educational system has encouraged us to believe that the major crucial factor in creating an enlightened society is information; this is untrue. Information alone does not lead to sophisticated and mature functioning. We define learning as telling somebody something: We told them, therefore they learned it. This is misleading. Parents tend to treat children according to the ways in which they were parented. It is a rare parent who can read material on childrearing and use that material; most of us do what was done to us. Parents hit because they have been hit, not because they haven't heard that it is incorrect.[7]

The crucial thing in teaching parenting is timing. Learning occurs only when the material has relevance to the life of the individual, when he is in actual process. The more active the learner, the better his chances of learning. Learning occurs when the experiences are pleasurable and when the learner feels respected.[8]

Barbara Beatt in research conducted in 1976 describes the functions of the family in relations to adolescents. In this research she discusses the delegation of responsibilities between parents and youth and listed these four major questions:

1. Economic accountability - adolescents have an insatiable appetite for money, 75 billion is spent annually by adolescents on discretionary items. How much control should parents have, if any, over the way adolescents spend their own money, when should they start contributing to the family income pool?
2. Family labor subsystem - what should they be expected to do, chores, etc?
3. Decision making - who has the power?
4. Value systems - comes from parents who are the models?[9]

Youth and Work

Predictions are that 50 percent of today's elementary school children will work at jobs that currently do not exist. By the year 2000, 96 percent of our working population will be engaged in some human-service related activity.[10] What impact do these statistics have on adolescents as they look forward to marriage and working for a living. Are girls preparing for work that will take them outside the home during the important child rearing years, or will they prepare for careers but never use those skills?

In research conducted on working mothers as viewed by adolescent girls, Diane Hedin found amongst middle age high school girls that they had the same kind of stereotyped ideas about work that one usually ascribes to their parents. The girls saw work as a transition period before marriage (or even family). Their greatest interest was in being married and having children, and they seemed still to embrace the romantic idea that this meant they would be taken care of and could escape the hard reality of working for a living.[11]

Youth and their Peers

There has been considerable research on peer groups, their influence on adolescents and also the influence of parents in comparison to the peer group. Some of this research reported the belief that the possibility of communication is absolutely real and has a better chance in the family than even among peers.[12]

If the family has the potential to influence youth to the degree the research indicates, the question becomes, who in the family has the greatest influence? In research conducted in 1972 at the University of Minnesota, when youth were asked "what was the best attribute you have gained from your family and from whom?", girls had a much easier time merely answering the question than boys did. Mothers were mentioned almost nine times out of ten as the parent who had given them the best attribute. If boys did mention their fathers, it was usually a skill, such as playing baseball, that was the best attribute. Boys were also asked when was the last time their father said or did something affectionate towards them and most of them couldn't remember.[13]

Parents seem to be the greatest influence in the family, but the question arises, can brothers and sisters be an influence in the family, and can they compete with the peer group to help influence and mold adolescents today?

Regulating Youths' Activities

What kind of rules and regulations will today's youth impose on their children? Does it reflect the restrictions they are exposed to as adolescents? Research mentioned earlier stated that parents act the way they do because that is they was they were treated as children. Researchers have found that with urban youth from troubled homes they never complained about regulations, and, in fact, saw themselves as future parents being even stricter with their children. This is the way they know their parents care about them; rules communicate concern and love. They have a deep desire to belong and often look for surrogate parents if they have none of their own. Money or no money, they want to have somebody around when they come home at night. A lot of boys in this situation want a child as quickly as possible, maybe for roots.[14]

Youth in more affluent areas talked about restraints and family influence in a much different light. They mentioned withdrawal of privileges such as use of the car or hours as being a kind of discipline which most of them resented. But they also talked a great deal about parent restraints which played on their emotions—harsh looks, accusations such as "you don't appreciate anything" or "you kids know it all and don't care for anyone else" or the silent treatment.[15]

Methods

To discover the attitudes of youth in Utah toward marriage and family it was necessary to conduct a youth poll, and discuss these concerns with youth themselves. The method selected to conduct this poll was to use small discussion groups with the recording responses. It was critical that no adults participate in the discussion groups and that the selection of groups be a self-selection process.

Questionnaire

The questions were constructed to elicit discussion, explanation and elaboration. To achieve this, open-ended questions were written in the language and conversational style of teenagers. Teenagers assisted with this phase of the poll. The questions underwent extensive pre-testing and modification before they were ready for statewide distribution.

Sampling

Random samples were done in the high schools within the state assuring that responses were generated from both rural and urban settings. A total of 881 youth responded in 146 different groups. The majority came from the urban areas (755 youth) and 14 percent from the rural communities (126). State high school populations show about 22 percent from the rural areas, so the random sample taken for this study was not significantly different from the population. A total of 460 girls and 421 boys responded and grade breakdown was 17 ninth graders, 244 tenth graders, 244 eleventh graders and 376 twelfth graders.

The use of the term "urban" should not be construed to mean "inner-city" as found in the major metropolitan areas. The largest city in Utah is Salt Lake City, followed by Provo, and Ogden. These communities have more of a suburban nature to them than a strict urban composure. Salt Lake City does have its downtown area, but it cannot compare to similar central areas of Los Angeles, Chicago or Detroit. For purposes of this study and its results and discussion, the term urban should be thought of as a middle class suburban setting.

Questionnaire Administration

A teacher read an introductory statement about the purpose of the póll (see Appendix A). The class then moved into self-selected groups of five to seven people. These groups then selected one person to be their "recorder" and discussion leader. That person read the instructions and questions to their group. The recorder wrote down as much of the discussion as possible and was instructed at the beginning to check all notes for legibility and completeness five minutes before the session was over.

The major advantage of the group format was that it minimized the obtrusiveness of the data collection process because of its congruence with adolescent interaction patterns. For adolescents, the peer group serves as a focal point for thinking through and reflecting on all aspects of everyday life. It is an important mechanism for personal, psychological, social and intellectual development. The self-selected group, with no adult present, is a close approximation of adolescents' typical style of relating to one another. When students sit with others they have chosen (and presumably know and like) a peer group has, in effect, been convened. Rapport is instant (having been previously established) and discussion is easy and open.

The group approach assures that students are active participants in the research process. They become responsible, in part, for structuring the situation: they select a discussion leader/recorder; they decide how to interpret the open-ended questions; they decide how long to discuss a particular question. This signals to them that they are viewed as competent and responsible persons. Giving teenagers this responsibility seems to be a major factor contributing to their active involvement and cooperation in the process.

Analysis

As has been described, the poll's data consists of written accounts of discussions stimulated by open-ended questions introduced by a group member of a self-selected quasi-peer group. The goal of the content analysis is to decipher the perspectives of the respondents around the topic area of the questions.

The analysis is done in stages. First the questionnaires are read through intact. Then they are split apart for content analysis by question and then by geographic regions and sex. The products of the analysis from each geographical area and sex are combined to produce a statement for each question. Then questions are merged to produce more general perspective. At each stage hypotheses are developed and checked, and the analysis is examined for inconsistencies, errors, and surprises. The end product is a statement of the "meaning" of that topic area, which is bounded by the quesions that served as the discussion stimulus.

In the Results and Discussion section some comparisons are made between "girls groups" and "boys groups." This distinction was arrived at if a clear majority of the group was one sex. The groups could have been all boys or all girls as was often the case. There were at least two or fewer of one sex while the other sex was four or more. So in the very least case there were twice as many of one sex as the other. In such cases, it is assumed that those in the majority would dominate the discussion with their ideas and biases. There were 297 girls in the groups dominated by girls and 263 in the boys' groups.

Results and Discussions

Question 1
"What is a good age to get married, Why?"

Results

The average age mentioned by all students was 21.7. The difference between rural youth and urban youth was about one year in optimal marriage age, with rural youth averaging age 22.5 and urban youth saying that 21.6 was the best age to get married. Overall there was no significant difference between the groups that were dominated by the boys or the groups dominated by the girls, they both were lower than the sampling average, boys and girls averaged 20.9 and 20.6 respectively. There was also nothing different in comparing urban boys and girls, but the rural age difference was considerably higher for rural girls (age 27) than for rural boys (age 23.6).

Reasons given for youth's optimal marriage age are given in Table 1. There were multiple responses and so the sum of the percents will total more than 100%. They are listed on Table 1 according to the rank in the total of group responses.

	overall %	girls %	boys %	rural %	urban %
1 Education is either over or well under way	48	49	49	24	52
2. More mature and able to handle problems and accept responsibilities	36	35	21	24	38
3 Settled into a career by then	25	27	26	12	26
4. Had a chance to experience life, to see the world and be on your own	21	16	21	41	19
5. Have enough money to get married by then	16	14	14	24	16
6. Had a chance to know yourself and evaluate what you want	5	4	6	14	5
7. Still young and have the stamina to raise a family	4	2	7	6	5
8. Finished with a church mission	4	2	5	-	2
9 Ready to raise a family	2	-	-	-	2
10 Your sure you have the right spouse	1	-	-	-	2
11 Chance to establish credit	1	-	-	6	-
12. Chance to get a house and car	1	-	-	6	-

Table 1
Reasons for Marriage Age

Discussion

Overall it seems that girls are more concerned with waiting until they are more mature and able to accept responsibilities than the boys were, but boys were more desirous of experiencing life and seeing the world before getting married than were the girls. Boys also showed a small difference in wanting to wait until they were ready to assume the responsiblity for the wife and family, but still wanted to get married while still young enough to physically play the part of what they thought a father and husband should be like. The phrase "being tied down" was mentioned in many of the boys responses indicating that they saw marriage as a limitation which corresponded with their desire to "see the world" before being married, implying that they may never have the opportunity again.

Census figures over the past ten years show that 22 percent of the women ages 19 and younger will have been married while only 7 percent of men of the same ages are or have been married. By the time women reach

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23 years of age, 70 percent will have been married while only 40 percent of the men at that same age will have been married.[16] Why so few at this age when 93 percent will eventually be married during their lifetime?[17] Also, is there a relationship between what Utah youth say is the reason for marrying later and what others are saying? In a study by Burchinal (1965) women who were married prior to graduating from high school were asked if they would do it over again, given the chance. The majority said they would wait and marry later, citing reasons similar to those mentioned in this study. Some of those reasons included: income problems, lack of freedom, desire for adventure, further education, and missing out on adolescent activities such as dances and movies.[18]

Differences between urban and rural youth centered around the urban youth statements of "waiting until they were mature," "had a career" and "were educated," as compared to the rural youth's statements of "needing money," "gaining credit," and "having a house and a car." Another interesting difference between the rural and urban youth is related to research conducted by Peterson, Offer and Kaplan in 1978. They compared rural and urban youth's self image, specifically reporting the results amongst the girls from urban communities. Their hypothesis was that it would be expected that youths feelings would be influenced by the size and nature of their communities. Earlier studies (Manning, 1975; Trowbridge, Trowbridge, and Trowbridge, 1972; Wendland, 1968; Prendergast, Zdep and Sepulveda, 1974) all indicated that rural youth had higher self images, and one study, the last one, found no differences. In their study, however, Peterson, Offer and Kaplan, found that girls from rural settings had a significantly lower self image than their counterpart in the urban cities. They suggested that the social and economic environment of rural American may have been important to this finding.[19]

If youth do partially share their parents' values as indicated by research (Offer & Offer, 1975; Flacks, 1967; Anthony, 1969), then there is a possibility that the concern for money, credit and having things such as a home and car as mentioned by youth in this study can be related to similar concerns of the parents. These economic concerns especially amongst parents out of work can cause feelings of hopelessness and discouragement that can be communicated to the children who share lower self-image.

Other reasons for rural youth wanting to marry later that could be an indicator of lower self image were the statements "I want a chance to know myself better and evaluate what I want out of life," and "I want to experience life more and be on my own first."

Question 2
"Do you have any specific ideas now on what your marriage partner should be like? What are they?"

Results

The youth groups gave a variety of answers to this question, the more reoccuring statements are found in Table 2.

	overall %	urban %	rural %	girls %	boys %
1 Attractiveness	62	59	88	57	70
2 Wealth	43	40	58	29	30
3 Educated/smart	33	33	41	35	30
4 Caring/considerate/respectful	29	30	23	39	9
5 Compatible/similar goals, faith, values	25	26	18	24	21
6 Trustworthy/honest	25	23	29	35	16
7. Shows interest in, and wants, kids	23	23	18	29	14
8 Personality	21	19	35	22	16
9. Loving/affectionate/amorous	21	19	29	22	21
10. Responsible	18	19	12	18	7
11. Good Housekeeper	16	16	13	-	28
12. Good job	15	16	12	20	5
13. Sense of humor	15	16	12	16	9
14. Ambitious/successful	14	16	6	16	7
15. Good communicator	14	16	-	14	12
16. Understanding	13	13	12	29	7
17 Strong/healthy/active	13	12	18	10	14
18. Religious	13	14	6	12	12
19 High moral standards/chaste/virgin	12	12	12	12	14
20. Hard worker	12	12	12	18	9
21 Friendly/outgoing	10	9	18	6	14
22. Creative/talented	8	8	6	4	7
23. Loyal	5	5	6	6	-
24 Good background	5	5	6	4	2

Table 2
Desired Characteristics of a Spouse

Discussion

It was not surprising to see "attractiveness" lead the list in all areas and with all sexes, and the desire for wealth in a married partner could be a product of the economic characteristics of the society in which these youth are growing up. Hopefully this desire for wealth will not contradict earlier statements that youth "will not allow the desire for money or prestige to push them into ill-considered alliances."[20] Of particular interest however, is the significant differences in these two statements between the rural youth and urban youth. When these first two statement are compared to similar differences between the same two groups in statement number 8, "personality," number 9, "loving/affectionate/amorous" and statement number 21, "friendly/outgoing," one is reminded of the lower self images of rural youth discussed in connection with question number one. The desire for love, friendship and personality all relate to self image and the desire for identity and security.

Another point of interest should be mentioned relating to the desire for a wealthy spouse. While only 29 percent and 30 percent of the girls and boys respectively mentioned "wealth," 67 percent of those groups made up of almost even numbers of boys and girls mentioned "wealth." These "co-ed" groups seem to be trying to say something to members of the opposite sex.

Question 3
"What plans do you have for children in your future family? (That is, will you space them and have a certain number, or let them come as they will or what?

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Results

The average number of children wanted in the future family of these youth was 3.4. There were no differences between the urban and rural youth and only a slight difference between boys and girls, with girls averaging 3.3 and boys averaging 3.6. The responses regarding the arrangements by which this family would be developed show that 93 percent of the youth were considering planning the family rather than letting it happen. Table 3 reports the breakdown of responses.

	overall %	girls %	boys %	rural %	urban %
Family planning	93	100	76	83	94
No planning-come as they may	7	-	24	12	6

Table 3
Family Planning

Discussion

The family size desired by Utah's youth is larger than the average family who stops at two children.[21] The differences in the statistics of the boys and girls desires to plan their families seems correlated to a later question relating to the girls working after marriage. More girls planned to work after marriage than boys planned on their wives working. Many of the reasons for planning the family related to the desire to work for a couple of years first, and so the two questions seem to correlate. Statements recorded by the groups included:

"We'll have the kids when we have the financial resources to support them."
"Wait 2-3 years, then start the family."
"Don't have any more children after 10 years of marriage."
"The number of kids depends on the health of the mother."
"No accidents - plan them."

Question 4
"If you could raise your family anywhere in the U.S. or the world, where would it be and why?"

Results

Responses from youth relating to where they would like to raise their family are reported in Table 4. The places are listed according to most popular down to the least mentioned.

	overall %	rural %	urban %
1. Utah	40	47	37
2. California	24	24	24
3 Western U.S.	16	1	18
4 Hawaii	13	33	9
5 Southwest/Texas/Arizona	6	2	7
6. Rural, small town area	9	17	8
7 Florida	4	-	5
8. Not Utah	4	-	3
9. East	4	1	5
10. Europe	3	-	4

Table 4
Optimal Geography for Rearing Family

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Discussion

Although 45 percent of rural youth said they would like to stay in Utah, only 17 percent of them would want to return to the rural area to raise their families. Urban families on the other hand looked to other locations in the west and some in the east. This is accounted for by the higher mobility and transiency of the urban family and the possibility that they came from those areas that they wished to move back to. This was confirmed in the comments section where most youth that mentioned other areas said they were raised there and they would like to raise their family in that environment also.

Rural youth also showed a great fascination with Hawaii. It is possible that this interest is connected to their desires to experience life and see the world before they get married. The media's portrayal of the good life on the islands, especially from television, may have rural youth dissatisfied with small town life as they fantasize about raising a family in what they called a "warm, carefree lifestyle."

There wasn't too many differences between boys and girls and where they wanted to live, but there was in their reasons. Girls more often said they chose the area they did because:

"My family lives there."
"It's a good place to raise a family."
"It's free from bad influences."
"Europe-because of the culture."

The reasons listed by boys were quite different from those listed by girls and they included statements such as:

"There is lots to do there."
"It's warm."
"I like the outdoors, the wilderness and animals."

The description of the youth who wanted to live in Europe included only urban youth who were planning to have their wives, or they as the wife, would work, and they wanted 15 percent fewer children than the rest of the group. None of the rural youth mentioned Europe, the East or Florida.

Question 5

"Do you expect your wife or you as the wife will work after marriage? If yes, why?"

Results

Most of the youth thought the wife would be working after marriage, the total was 84 percent who said yes. There wasn't a big difference between the boys and the girls, but the girls did seem more in favor of working than the boys were of their wives working. Ninety percent of the girls thought they would be working and only 84 percent of the boys thought their wives would be working. Rural youth showed a significant difference over their urban counterparts with 24 percent of them voting against the wives working compared to 12 percent saying "no" from urban areas.

The reasons listed for working were led by the desire for, or need for money. The second most often stated reason was "to get out of the house," "something to do,"

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or "to improve myself and do something useful." Almost all respondents said they would only work until they started having children and then maybe continue after the kids were raised. Amongst the boys who said they did not want their wives working the most common reason was "they are to stay home and clean the house."

Discussion

Contrary to what some boys said in response to the question concerning qualities of their ideal mate, that they "wanted someone who wasn't as smart as they were," in the family of tomorrow, husband and wife will have comparable education backgrounds. Both the husband and the wife will also work outside the home for the greater portion of their adult lives. The statement by almost all the youth that they "would work until the kids come, and then after they're raised," is a noble thought, but the likelihood is that they will probably return to work after the children are in school or possibly even before.[22] Current statistics show that over half the mothers of school age children are working outside the home and that number rises every year.[23]

The message portrayed in the statements given by youth in this study indicates a belief that if the mothers work outside the home, the children and the home will suffer from her absence. Recent studies of middle-class families show, however, that when the mother works outside the home, it usually has good effects on the family.[24] The better educated career mothers report feeling better about themselves and research by Pasquali and Callegari (1978) shows that those feelings as well as the dissatisfied feelings of the educated, noncareer mothers are passed along to the children. This research did not address the controversy of mothers of infants and young children, only to pre-adolescents and adolescents. Other research by Gold and Andress (1978) found that the needs of adolescents can be met by career oriented mothers and that the family as a whole benefits.

Daughters in the family seem to benefit most from having career oriented mothers. The role model of a mother who is independent and visibly successful causes the daughter to more likely become relatively independent and to have higher self-esteem.[25]

Question 6

"If you were to write your own marriage vows, what would they say? Write one as a group."

Results

Marriage vows written by the youth were, for the most part, traditional marriage vows as the youth are exposed to them through books, movies and television. Twenty percent of the youth reflected their religous culture (predominantly Latter-day Saints) and mentioned marriage for eternity as conducted in that church's temples.

Discussion

Statements about "trust" and "honesty" seemed to dominate the vows and current issues were also reflected through statements about "spouse abuse" and "child abuse." Girls included religious values and a desire for equality of both sexes and stated that both the husband and the wife should love, honor, and obey. Boys, on the other hand, included statements about their wives staying fit, not cheating, but there were no religious values included. Some boys said that the husband should always have the last word in the marriage. Those boys were also the same ones who wanted a wife dumber than they, she was not to work, and they generally looked upon marriage as "tying them down."

Question 7

"Have you thought of any rules you will require of your children like requiring them to attend church, no early dating, no watching questionable cable T.V. shows, etc.?"

Results

Totals of responses to this question are reported in Table 5 and are listed by overall response, and then separated by urban and rural as well as boys and girls.

	overall %	urban %	rural %	girls %	boys %
1 Expect them to attend church until they are old enough to decide for themselves.	37	37	35	41	40
2. No dating until either 16 or in high school	36	35	41	40	40
3. Exercise some control over the shows children watch on television and at the movie theatres.	25	25	29	30	23
4 Teach the kids what you expect and what you think is best and then let them decide for themselves	16	18	4	20	14
5. Impose a curfew	14	14	12	12	12
6 No smoking, alcohol, or drugs	14	15	6	3	21
7. Not impose any regulations, let them be responsible for their own acts.	12	10	24	6	16
8. Let them choose their own church.	3	7	18	12	7
9. Assign chores and teach them to work	5	4	18	4	2
10. Attend school and keep the grades high.	5	5	-	-	7
11. Keep your parents informed as to your whereabouts	3	2	6	-	9
12. Don't shelter them, let them experience the world	3	3	6	2	2

Table 5
Future Family Rules and Regulations

Discussion

Rural youth show strong differences from the urban youth in the areas of church attendance, doing chores, and restrictions of smoking, drugs and alcohol. The importance of chores is natural in the rural setting and is not surprising in this study, but what is of interest is the lessened interest in church and addictive influences. Not only was there less interest in expecting youth to attend church, but they also, more often than urban youth, made statements about letting youth choose their own religion from the outset.

Differences between boys and girls showed that boys were more concerned with regulating their children with respect to grades, drugs, and keeping their parents informed than were the girls. They also thought their children should be more responsible for their own acts. Girls reported more desire for independence by stating that they thought it more important to teach the youth and then let them choose for themselves. This correlated to the statement from the girls about letting their kids choose their own religion. Both these statements reflected more interest from girls than boys in imposing such rules. Even though the girls noted more desire for freedom of choice, they did indicate that they were more concerned about controlling T.V. and movies than were the boys. Some of the boys' groups said they would put more restriction on their daughters than on the sons, but this was never mentioned by the girls' groups.

The top three issues mentioned by the youth are also the same issues referred to in the question as it was written in the study, and any weight given to the responses from the students should keep this in mind. Those issues which came spontaneously from the youth follow these first three, and include a desire to exercise some control through curfews, regulating drugs, alcohol and tobacco, but also teaching values and then letting the youth regulate themselves.

This question really reflects how the youth themselves want to be treated. Most of them thought they were of the age where they should be allowed to choose church for themselves, they usually mentioned the early teens (13-15 years old) as the time when youth should be allowed to make up their own minds. The idea of having values taught to you and then choosing for yourself is also reflected in a later question dealing with punishment. Youth stated in answer to that question that they would rather be told what was wrong and the correct way of dealing with the situation than to be punished verbally or physically. Both these answers seem to be addressing the same issue.

The issue of curfews was of interest in light of the fact that over 50 percent of the teenagers across the country report that they have no curfews.[26] Youth want some security, even though they say they want to make their own decisions. In a later description of the successful mother, that description included the desire to have the mother home when the kids got home. This statement in connection with the restrictions through curfews indicates a need for security and sense of belonging.

Question 8

"When parents correct you or punish you for wrongdoing, does it help, are they generally right, or does it hurt and do more damage?"

Results

The overall opinion of the youth was that punishment helped, Table 6 reports the data for the overall group and also divides the responses according to boys and girls and by rural and urban groups. All the reporting is by grade to show the differences among the higher grades.

	9th grade %	10th grade %	11th grade %	12th grade %	total %
Overall groups that say punishment hurts	41	27	28	11	22
Girls groups	100	37	29	9	25
Boys groups	0	32	29	13	25
Rural groups	41	44	37	4	41
Urban groups	0	24	27	11	20

Table 6

Groups Reporting That Parental Punishment Hurts

Discussion

Even though the majority of youth reporting said that punishment helps, they qualified that statement with the need to talk over the wrongdoing and not immediately or unthinkingly administer punishment. Physical punishment never helped and yelling and prolonged restriction of privileges didn't seem to help either. Typical statements of the young people regarding punishment included:

"Discuss it"

"Physical punishment doesn't help"

"Helps if parents sit down and talk to you"

"Depends on punishment, long grounding and yelling is no good"

"It's OK if they're consistent"

"Dad hurts, Mom helps"

"Give the kid a chance to show he knows it's wrong and let him be sorry"

"Punish when young, talk to the kids when they're older"

"Usually my parents don't listen"

"Hurts if the parents discipline you just because they want to be the boss"

"Make the punishment suitable to the wrongdoing"

"Helps if the parents will also praise you when you do good"

"Always hurts at our age"

Table 6 reports a majority of youth in the higher school grades believe punishment is fair and helps. Regardless of sex or community setting they all report lower percentages of hurt by the 12th grade. Twelfth grade boys, however, do show that twice as many of them as 12th grade girls believe that punishment hurts.

Rural youth report the highest overall percentage that say punishment hurts, more than twice that of the urban groups. Almost half of the rural groups not only say that punishment hurts, but that the punishment they receive makes them want to do wrong even more. They typically say their punishment takes the form of hitting or yelling. Nationally, teenagers say that 22 percent of them receive similar punishment (i.e. yelling and hitting) from their parents.[27]

Question 9

"What makes successful parents?
A. What should the father do? Is your father like that?
B. What should the mother do? Is your mother like that?"

Results

Tables 7 and 8 report the totals of the responding groups divided by urban and rural. Also listed are columns indicating percentages of youth that said their dad or mom was not like the description they listed, but the fact that some did say "no, my mom or dad is not like this" shows a deliberate act to communicate that information through the study.

Discussion

There is an interesting contradiction between the results of this question and responses to the question on wives working and the one on marriage vows. Girls said they wanted their marriage vows to reflect an equality between husbands and wives, all youth also said there was a very strong likelihood that they or their wives would be working after marriage, but in their descriptions of a successful mother and father, youth list the

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homemaking duties of the mother as number one on the list. That combined with the fact that only 5 percent of all youth said a successful father helps with the household duties, and the dad's most often mentioned description is to be the wage earner, indicates an interesting contradiction among young people. Another finding that relates to this issue, is the fact that the majority of girls when reporting that they would work after marriage, said the reason was for money, to assist in the financial needs of the family, yet that was not listed anywhere in the descriptions of the successful mother.

The reason for the contradiction lies in the possibility that youth looked to their mothers as being a source of descriptors for the successful mother, and they didn't include her career, if she had one, as part of her "role model." On the other hand, youth see themselves as working after marriage, but they see it as a necessity because of economic hard times and a desire to have money and the things money can buy. Youth do not consider the wife's career as part of her "motherly role," but see it as an interlude, an intrusion into what they consider the first duty of the father, that of supporting the family financially. All youth seem to think their mothers nag them too much, rural youth significantly so. Over a quarter of the rural youth think their mothers are not meeting up to their five most noted qualities of a successful mother. Rural youth also rate their fathers very poorly in their personal communications with their children. They rated them low in being supportive, interested, and spending time with the family. Urban fathers, too, were rated low in being interested in the children, but also low in being a friend to the kids. This weakness was not noted in the rural fathers.

Dad should:	total %	no %	rural %	no %	urban %	no %
1 Support the family, work, make money	25	8	41	0	23	10
2 Spend time with the family	21	2	24	25	21	4
3. Be supportive and understanding of the kids	18	25	29	60	16	14
4 Discipline the kids, be strict	10	0	12	0	10	0
5 Be a friend to the kids, love them	8	25	6	0	9	27
6 Be the head of the house	7	10	0	0	8	10
7 Help with the household duties	5	0	0	0	5	0
8 Talk to the kids, show interest in them	5	43	6	100	5	33
9 Teach many things to the boys, camping, ball, hunting	4	0	0	0	5	0
10 Be religious, teach children right from wrong	3	0	6	0	2	0
11 [illegible] when to let go	2	33	0	0	2	33
12. Be a good example	1	0	6	0	2	0
13 Be an equal partner with your wife	1	50	0	0	2	50

Table 7
Description of a Successful Father

Mom should:	total %	no %	rural %	no %	urban %	no %
1 Be a homemaker, cook, sew, clean house	23	31	29	20	22	0
2 Help with the kids problems, be there to talk to them	16	4	29	20	15	0
3 Be supportive and understanding of their children	13	6	29	20	11	0
4 Raise the children and take care of them	12	6	18	33	12	0
5. Teach the children	7	10	6	100	7	0
6. Be a friend	6	0	0	0	7	0
7 Support the husband, make him happy	6	0	6	0	6	0
8. Don't nag the children	5	25	6	100	5	14
9. Organize the family and hold it together	3	0	6	0	3	0
10. Stay calm in the face of troubles	3	25	6	0	2	33
11 Teach the girls womanly things (i.e. cooking, sewing)	3	0	0	0	3	0
12. Discipline the children	3	0	0	0	2	0
13 Set an example	1	0	5	0	1	0

Table 8
Description of a Successful Mother

Question 10

"Are the opinions of your friends or your brothers and sisters more important in how you see yourself as a person and in shaping your goals, and why?"

Results

Table 9 reports the responses from all youth combined, and also divides the urban and rural responses.

	overall %	urban %	rural %
1 Friends are more important in how I see myself	25	24	31
2. Brothers and sisters are more important	21	22	19
3 Both influence me	17	17	19
4. I am not influenced by either, I am my own person	36	36	31

Table 9
Sources of Influence

Comments reported by the youth in the study varied, the majority of twelfth graders stated that they made their own decisions, but did listen to friends and members of their families. Some comments included:

"They're more your age and understand you"
"Their opinions are really important"
"Others see you different than you see yourself"
"It matters what they think, but you have to be your own person"
"Brothers and sisters understand you better"
"You look up to them"
"Brothers and sisters are important but our family

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rarely talks to each other"
"They are family and want what is best for you"
"Age differences give different views"
"It's good to know what they feel, but you have to be yourself"
"Brothers and sisters are better than friends"
"You can trust brothers and sisters, they have the same ideals and know you better"
"Brothers and sisters are bossy"
"Friends don't make you feel dumb"
"We are all influenced by peer pressure"
"I trust my brothers and sisters, they are closer to me"
"Brothers and sisters tell you the truth"
"Friends influence me at school, brothers and sisters at home"

Discussion

Research by Dunphy in 1986 studied the development and dissolution of adolescent peer groups. He found the patterning of cliques and crowds was strongly influenced by age and sex. Dunphy found youth to progress through a series of five stages according to age. Stage one was identified by isolated singles in cliques at about 11 years of age, stage two saw two single sex cliques interact when youth reached 13 years of age. At 15 youth moved into the third stage noted by single sex cliques with high status members forming a heterosexual clique. Stage four occurred at approximately 17 years of age and was identified by heterosexual cliques in close association, and the last stage, stage five, were loosely associated groups of couples at about 19 years of age.[28] Since research has found differences in age and sex in relationship to peer associations, it is important in this study to separate responses from this study into grades and sex. These figures can be found in Table 13.

	9th grade %	10th grade %	11th grade %	12th grade %
Female peer associations most important	0	33	45	26
Female brother and sister associations most important	0	26	20	10
Male peer associations most important	100	13	26	9
Male brother and sister associations most important	0	6	3	6

Table 13
Peer Influences by Sex and Grade

What is important to note in Table 13 is the drop in influence at grade 12 as compared to the earlier grades. This corresponds to research done by Dunphy and others (Bixenstine et al., 1976; Costanzo, 1970; Landsbaum and Willis, 1971.) The rise in male influence by peers in the 11th grade correspods to research done by Loy and Norland (1981), in which they noted that boys at 16 and girls at 18 tend to slip back into a strong peer association, and then pull up again as shown in Table 13 under male peer associations.[29]

Loy and Norland also report a higher sensitivity to peers amongst the females than with boys, which also corresponds to the difference found in Table 13 between boys and girls peer associations.[30]

Urban youth report higher dependency on information from brothers and sisters and less influence from peers. Urban youth also show a higher percentage that feel their decision making is independent from either peers' or brothers' and sisters' influence. Rural youth, on the contrary, report more dependency on peers.

Summary

What kind of expectations and controls will the future family have? Almost forty percent of these future parents will expect their children to attend church and when mature enough, they will be allowed to choose for themselves. Over one third will impose a minimum dating age and many fathers plan to be especially strict with their daughters. A fourth of the parents will control what their children view on T.V. and at the movies.

By far the majority think that adolescents are old enough to choose for themselves and they would allow their teenagers the right to make their own choices. That is not to say they wouldn't try to influence them. Most teenagers said they would try to teach their children right from wrong and then let them go. In regards to being punished, the youth reflected similar ideas about being mature enough to deserve different treatment than they did as younger children. They would rather be taught the error of what they did and be allowed to correct themselves, than to be grounded or yelled at.

Adolescent boys and girls in Utah thought the most successful trait of a father is to "bring home the bacon" and mom was to be the homemaker. In stark contrast to this, 84 percent of the youth thought that their wives or themselves as the wife would work after marriage and even after the family was raised. Teenagers also wanted equality in the sexes to be mentioned in the marriage vows, but only 5 percent said the description of a successful dad included helping with the household chores.

Teens report that their moms nag too much. One fourth of the teens in rural Utah do not think their mothers do the things mothers ought to do. Fathers of urban families are criticized for not being friends with their kids and not being interested in them while fathers of rural families don't communicate or spend time with their children.

Teenage girls are more easily influenced by peer associations than are the boys, and both sexes respond to peer opinions more than they listenedto their own brothers and sisters As the youth get older, all influences seem to diminish and they want "to be their own person" and "make their own decisions."

When do these youth plan to marry and why? Most of them plan to marry just before turning 22, kids from rural areas say they would rather be a little older. The reason for marrying at that time is that they want most of their education out of the way or want to be settled in a career. Almost one fourth want to wait so they can "see the world" and "live a little first" stating or implying that marriage will tie them down.

In describing what they are looking for in a spouse, youth say first they want someone "good looking," and second, they want someone "rich." Beyond that they want a spouse who is educated, caring and considerate, compatible, honest and wants kids. Not a lot of kids, but more than the national average, about 50 percent

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more. Boys, by the way, want more children than the girls and the girls said they would plan their families. Teens thought it a good idea to wait a couple of years before having children and then to space them 2-3 years apart. Their reasons for spacing them were for better control and teaching of the kids, the health of the mom, and financial reasons.

Most of the youth want to stay in Utah or surrounding states in the west to raise their families. Over 40 percent wanted to go to California or Hawaii for the "fun and the sun." (This study was done in March-April and the severe Utah winter may have influenced this.) Girls most often chose specific places to raise their families because they were "good wholesome places" or "other family live there." Boys on the other hand chose the "fun and the sun."

The family of tomorrow in Utah appears to be in good hands. The values that are being imparted to the youth today will most likely be passed on to their children. Teenagers have some very strong ideas about trusting their children, yet being strong, disciplining and loving. Future generations should see more loving attention from the parents as those parents teach their children and trust them to do what is right.

Footnotes

[1]Center for Youth Development and Research, Youth's Rights to be Regarded as Persons, University of Minnesota, August, 1975.

[2]Center for Youth Development and Research, Youth Responds to Social Systems, University of Minnesota, August, 1972. pg.7.

[3]Ibid. pg. 7.

[4]Ibid.

[5]Center for Youth Development and Research, Youth and the Family, University of Minnesota, September, 1976. pg. 5.

[6]Ibid. pg. 6.

[7]Ibid. pg. 9.

[8]Ibid.

[9]Center for Youth Development and Research, Youth and the Family, University of Minnesota, September, 1976.

[10]op. cit., Youth and the Family, pg. 8.

[11]Quarterly Focus, Center for Youth Development and Research, University of Minnesota, First issue, no date.

[12]op cit, Youth Responds to Social Systems, pg. 10.

[13]Ibid.

[14]op. cit, Youth Responds to Social Systems, pg. 8.

[15]Ibid. pg. 9.

[16]Haviland, Jeannette M. and Hollis S. Scarborough, Adolescent Development in Contemporary Society. New York: D. Van Nostrand Company, 1981. pg. 233.

[17]Gordon, Sol. The Teenage Survival Book, New York: Times Books, 1981. pg. 125.

[18]op. cit., Haviland, pg. 233.

[19]Petersen, Anne C., Daniel Offer & Eric Kaplan. "The Self-Image of Rural Adolescent Girls," in Female Adolescent Development, pp. 141-155. Edited by Max Sugar. New York: pg. 153.

[20]op. cit., Gordon, pg. 125.

[21]Ibid.

[22]Ibid.

[23]op. cit., Haviland, pg. 180.

[24]Ibid. pg. 182.

[25]Ibid. pg. 183.

[26]"For kids today, life's a balancing act," in The Daily Herald, September 15, 1985, USA Weekend Section, pg. 4.

[27]Ibid. pg. 7.

[28]op. cit., Haviland, pg. 205.

[29]Loy, Pamela and Stephan Norland, Parents and Peer Influences on Adolescents' Gender Expectations. Youth & Society, Vol. 13 No. 2, December 1982, pg. 182.

[30]Ibid.

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CURRICULUM EVALUATION FOR EDUCATORS IN RECREATION AND LEISURE SERVICES

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Abstract

Education is often described as the process of changing the behavior of a human being. The outcomes of learning are spoken of as knowledge, information, habits, abilities, attitudes, and standards or values. If learning is the progressive change towards a goal we set, then education is consciously controlling that process. Curriculum planning and evaluation are closely related, and must be ongoing to be key components in an unimpaired educational practice.

Education and Curriculum

The concept of curriculum goes back to the days of Johann Friederick Herbert (1776-1841), a German educator whose ideas were largely accepted in the United States. He taught that learning required an orderly attention to the selection and organization of subject matter. Schools gradually became more conscious of their curriculums and began to develop and revise the plans. By the 1960's, other considerations were being advocated such as establishing consistent relationships between educational goals and teacher planning, continuity as well as sequence of subject matter, and ideas as to what constituted a "well-rounded" educational experience. Even more recently, educational ideas have included impact from social forces.

The definition of curriculum itself has undergone change. "Curriculum" was derived from the Latin word <u>currere</u> which means "to run." The word was first associated with running races. More common definitions describe it as "work schedule" or "particular body of courses." All seem to suggest arriving at a set end through an orderly plan of progression. But today, the most common consensus is that education and "curriculum" must focus on the full development of the individual and not just on subject matter.

Curriculum is no longer simply teaching particular subject matter at a specific time, but is a <u>guide</u> for both teachers and students in achieving a total educational experience. Curriculum involves the learner's development not only in school-related presentations by teachers, but also involves "out-of-class" encounters and programs, guidance, social life, work, and any other activity related to school program and the learning experience. It is not a "one-man-show" presented by the teacher, but a student-teacher partnership. "Many groups and individuals are interested in having a say about what is taught. No single source believes that .. as enough influence or power...The curriculum de n of a board of education, a federal agency, a state department of education, or a legislature can be changed in spirit and in fact by principals and teachers. Although students are often thought to be without much power in deciding what will be <u>taught</u> in schools, they have a great deal to say about what is <u>learned</u> (McNeil, 1981, p. 314)."

The educational process of "learning" should be approached with several principles in mind:

1. Learning is always related to something (motive, goal, etc.)
2. Learning is an active, not a passive process. It is an adjustment in the learner to meet his goal.
3. Learning depends on activity, but it is intense effort that hastens learning. The learner must have a true desire to achieve.
4. Every learning situation involves volitional, intellectual, and emotional relationships. It involves purpose and feeling (Annarino, 1980).

The selection of appropriate learning activities and experiences is one of the crucial educational problems of today. Educators in recreation and leisure services are no exception. There is a constant need to develop and improve. When an educational objective is set, the question must be asked: "What types of learning experiences will contribute <u>maximally</u> to this purpose, goal, or end?" Experiences must be structured to provide these ends.

Although an institution or teacher may stress knowledge, skills and abilities, it must be remembered that the students want these things for a specific purpose, whether it be increased knowledge for learning's sake, or career preparation. Motivation is fundamental. The curriculum must be meaningful, if not dynamic. As educators, our task is to help instill within our students a worthwhile purpose in their educational pursuits, build on those already held, and maybe in some instances, change undesireable ones. We must then help them develop the skills and knowledge to develop in the desired way.

Curriculum Evaluation

Not only is curriculum organization and implementation very important, but its constant evaluation is just as fundamental. The continuous appraisal and improvement of curriculum is often more important than the design, plan or outline.

Allen A. Glatthorn said, "Change is necessary because our society is changing." Students are changing, our resources are changing. The finest curriculum is always subject to change. Publius Syrus said in 42 B.C. that "it is a bad plan that admits of no modification" (Willgoose, 1979). No longer is there any question concerning the need of evaluation and change for curriculum. Change is what is to be counted on. Educational purposes must keep pace with the needs of students as they move toward their goals. If educators truly believe in the importance and worth of students, curriculum must continually be concerned with their needs, interests, and capacities, the sum of which provides new and better contributions to society. Furthermore, curriculum evaluation is closely related to teaching itself. Appraisal of curriculum is often appraisal of teaching. As we change curriculum values or objectives, we often must change our methods for teaching.

Still, curriculum improvement must be more than just published statements of change. The appraisal of a curriculum's value and worth should be sought from not only educators and administrators, but by the students themselves, and possibly even from parents. Appropriate data must be gathered concerning the quality and quantity of student experience, change, and outcome as a result of curricular experience. Evaluation should be coupled with measurement.

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Continued clarification, specification, and new objectives should provide insight and new growth and performance. The learner or student serves as a good resource for evaluation as to whether or not needs are fulfilled in courses of study, career preparation, skills attained, etc.

Three dominant approaches in the field of evaluation are concerned with

1. Achievement of desired outcomes (Evaluation).
2. Assessment of merit.
3. Decision making (Lewy, 1977).

Evaluation

One of the best-known models concerning the achievement approach was proposed by Tyler in 1950. He described education as a process where three items were focused upon: (a) educational objective - whether or not it was obtained; (b) learning experiences; (c) examination of achievements (Lewy, 1977). Figuratively, it is expressed as

$$\begin{tikzcd}
& \text{Educational Objectives} \arrow[dl, dash, "(a)"'] \arrow[dr, dash, "(c)"] & \\
\text{Learning Experiences} \arrow[rr, dash, "(b)"] & & \text{Examination of Achievement}
\end{tikzcd}$$

Tyler believed evaluation meant examining if the desired objectives are attained or not. The concern is whether the students develop in the desired way. In the model, this type of evaluation is expressed type (c). Type (a) refers to the connection between objectives and learning experiences or curriculum. Type (b) refers to the examination between those learning experiences and the educational outcomes. This model has been criticized for its lack of dealing with unexpected or unplanned events.

Assessment of Merit

The assessment approach examines the merit of a given entity. Such questions would be asked as "How well does the entity perform?" and "Is its use worth what it's costing?" Research in this area has stressed the importance of timing in the evaluation of a program - whether it takes place during developmental stages or afterwards. Another important consideration.

Decision Making

The Decision-oriented approach to evaluation is associated with the belief that "evaluation is worthwhile only if its results affect future actions." The decision maker needs to be supplied with data, analyses, and maybe summary reports from an independent evaluator, but the information needs to be free from opinion. An evaluator calls attention to alternatives the decision maker may not be aware of.

All three approaches have value and merit in the field of curriculum evaluation, and all should be considered.

Conclusion

Curriculum planning and evaluation play a very important part in the educational process. The concept of curriculum itself has undergone many changes, but the current consensus of opinion is that curriculum involves a learner's total growth towards an educational objective, and not just the course of study provided by an instructor or institution.

Many researchers agree on the continuing need for curriculum evaluation and its importance in meeting educational objectives. We as educators in recreation and leisure services must continually evaluate our curriculums, and evaluate our effectiveness. Willgoose said, "Self-evaluation is almost always a good practice, for it encourages soul-searching and an honest attitude toward what the program should be. When an administrator and staff appraise their total curriculum, they have, in effect, opened their minds and humbled themselves just enough to be able to see the changes needed. Therefore, the simple act of deciding to appraise a program is in itself significant" (Willgoose, 1979).

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BEING A DEPARTMENT HEAD: WHAT KIND OF AN ADMINISTRATOR ARE YOU?

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Abstract

Administrators may operate from Department Head Centered to Staff/Subordinate Centered leaders. Some writers in higher education see department chairs as one, or possibly a combination of, four types: faculty, management, externally and/or program oriented. There is a need for a balance between the department head and the subordinate centered leader.

Being an Effective Department Head

Like personalities, heads of departments, or chairs, vary considerably. Becoming aware of the type of departmental leader one is, can be an important first step in becoming more effective. In her unpublished dissertation, The Relationship Between the Role Definition and Socialization of Academic Department Heads (Penn State 1980), Ann Kieffer Bragg outlines four types of department chairs. They are:

1. The Faculty Oriented Chair. This chairperson sees development of department faculty as being of primary importance.
2. The Management Oriented Chair. This chairperson stresses effective organization and efficient operation.
3. The Externally Oriented Chair. This chairperson emphasizes working with outsiders, such as professional associations and grant agencies, in order to secure resources, benefits, and prestige for the department.
4. The Program Oriented Chair. This chairperson views the development of excellent education programs and superior graduates as the primary goal of the department.

To be an effective department head one must be all of the above at different times of the year. If there are young and inexperienced personnel, or if there are new faculty/staff, the department head must be personnel, faculty/staff oriented. The department head must be a motivator, or a mover of personnel, faculty/staff, and one who can breed self-confidence in all personnel, letting them know he is available to aid them in professional development. There are times when he needs to be the figure head role, giving technical, human relations, and conceptual advice. If the department is being ignored by higher level administrators, perhaps it isn't being well managed and a department head with management orientation is needed.

We are not sheltered in the field of parks and recreation. Apart from violent upheaval, or other catastrophies, the next two decades will no doubt see many of the effective organizations and efficient operations of the 1970's and 1980's, be more actively placed into operation. The delivery of leisure services in no way frees our professional leaders from the confusion of social and ethical pressures brought to bear on other organizations. Bannon states, "It is naive to believe a public agency avoids the political and monetary pressures private enterprise faces." There is, and there will be, a more direct accountability to taxpayers which puts department heads continuously in the limelight. Therefore, a management oriented department head, at certain times of the year, is a necessity for complete and efficient operation.

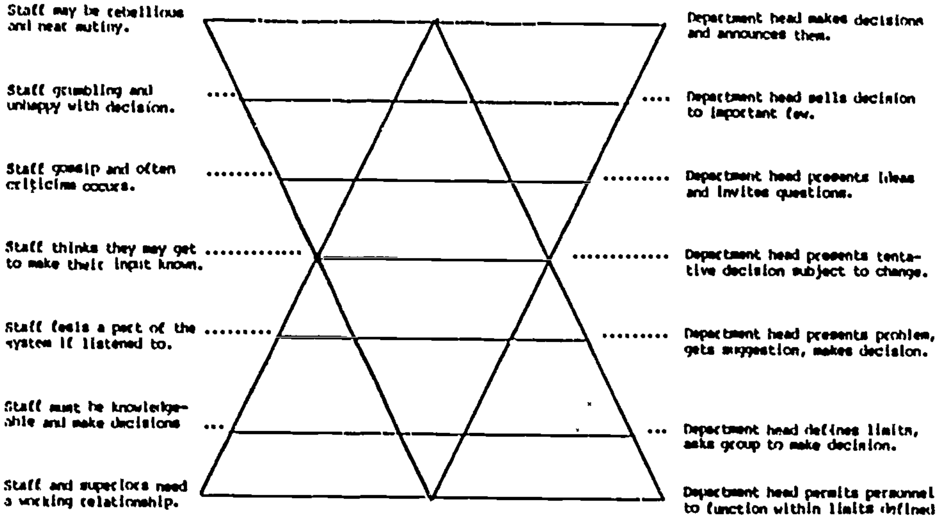
Budget freezes, constraints, cutbacks, and the cry for less taxes from the taxpayers associations, have placed a need for managers to work with outside private and public professional associations and grant agencies, in order to secure monetary benefits and outside funding resources. Public parks and recreation programs, therapeutic recreation programs in hospitals, institutions and correctional facilities, private/commercial recreation enterprises, outdoor recreation agencies, as well as parks and recreation programs in higher education institutions, have all been forced toward a more business oriented approach. The American Society of Association Executives and The Chamber of Commerce of the United States declares, "that the success of a business is measured by profits, association success is measured by benefits to members and intangibles, such as public goodwill, and that no one is more important to an association than its members." No one is more important to the parks, recreation, and leisure field, than the participants of these programs. Administrators who work in any part of the parks, recreation, and leisure field, know too well the consequences for not securing additional soft money funding. Participants and programs alike suffer from lack of financial support. Therefore, the importance of the externally oriented chair, who knows how to raise additional funds and resources, has grown during the past decade. It now seems to be a necessity for the success of future park and recreation programs.

The program oriented department head, views the development of education programs, superior graduates, and participants of parks and recreation programs, as their primary goals. The program oriented department head may be the nerve center of his organizational unit. His role may be to provide information to staff. He may monitor the development of programs and evaluate the participants of such programs. He may play the disseminator's role by passing collected data to his subordinates who would otherwise have no access to it. The program oriented department head may play a spokesperson's role by informing and satisfying the influential people who control his organizational unit. Of course, information is not an end, in itself. It is the basic input to decision-making. The department head does play the major role in the department decision-making system. He is the formal authority and only he can commit the unit to follow new courses of action for program changes and development. As entrepreneur, the department head seeks to improve his program and to adapt it to changing conditions in the community. As various programs grow, his job then may become more important in his role as a resource allocator. This means he must decide which of the programs and which coordinator will receive the available resources.

Through the years, several experiments have produced generalizations about authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire leaders. Ronald Lippitt and Ralph White, in the research program headed by Kurt Lewin at the University of Iowa in the 1930's, are sometimes considered the leaders in the parade of researchers. It has been generalized that authoritarian-led groups produce a greater quantity of work over a short period of time, but experienced more hostility, competition,

CHART I

Department Head Centered Leadership



Subordinate Centered Leadership

and aggression — especially scapegoating, more discontent beneath the surface, and more dependence and less originality. Democratically-led groups, slower in getting into production, were more strongly motivated, became increasingly productive with time and learning, experienced more friendliness and teamwork, praised one another more frequently, and expressed greater satisfaction. Laissez-faire-led groups did less work and poorer work than either the authoritarian or the democratically led groups.

Too, often, administrators profess to be democratic or subordinate leadership centered, when they are indeed the opposite. It is this author's opinion that there needs to be a balance between the department head and the subordinate centered leader. There can be little input from subordinates where department head centered leadership is used extensively. There can be much input from subordinates where subordinate centered leadership is used widely.

The chart above (chart I) presents the meaning of this input as it affects leadership styles.

The question that needs to be asked is where do you, as a park and recreation department head, fit into the pyramid? Most research shows that the department head who uses staff subordinate centered leadership is associated with a higher degree of accomplishment. However, the successful department head can be primarily characterized as neither a strong leader or a permissive one. There is a need for the succesaful department head to have open communication and intercommunication with staff. When his decisions are supported by his subordinates a high percentage of time, he has a tendency to be looked upon as a favorable administrator. If the percentage of support for the administration declines, a change in leadership may be imminent and he is generally less looked upon in importance as an administrator. A department head, who has hired competent personnel, plans well in advance, is organized, self-motivated, sightful, flexible, humanistic, enthusiastic, positive in his approach to leadership techniques, dedicated, persevering, able to carry on public relations, and market his staff and program, is the leader that may be located in the middle of the double pyramid. In most organizations, the required bureaucracy of today has shortened the time that good department heads wish to work in administration.

What kind of an administrator are you?

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PUBLIC-COMMERCIAL COOPERATION IN RECREATION PROGRAMS

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Abstract

Public-Commercial cooperation can take many forms, but program related types are most common. Development of successful cooperative ventures involves (a) preliminary consideration of organizational elements, (b) inventory and analysis of opportunities, and (c) the trade-off of market functions to implement the project. Market functions include market information, product development, financing and risk bearing, promotion, and exchange mechanisms.

Types of Public-Commercial Cooperation

There are many potential types of public-commercial cooperation, but a distinction may be made between two primary categories: (a) Strategies for Cooperative Recreation Programs and (b) Strategies for Cooperation in Capital Development and Facility Management. Although the program-related strategies are the primary focus of this presentation, both types are introduced here.

Cooperative Recreation Programs

Perhaps the greatest potential for cooperative ventures lies in the area of recreation programs. Recent research (Crossley and Wilhite, 1985) has indicated that program-oriented types of cooperation were generally more popular than were types of cooperation involving capital development and facility management. This seems logical for several reasons.

1. Program-oriented types of cooperation often involve less commitment of funds.
2. They usually use existing facilities.
3. They are usually less complex from a legal standpoint and may not require lengthy contracts.
4. Many cooperative programs can be developed and coordinated by field-based leadership staff (as opposed to administrative staff.)
5. In most communities there are numerous small companies and chain stores having sufficient resources to become involved with inexpensive cooperative programs.

Strategies for cooperative programs include:

Nationally Sponsored Promotional Programs. Programs conducted nationwide by major corporations for promotional reasons. Examples: Pepsi Hotshot, Ken-L-Ration Dog Shows.

Locally Sponsored Promotional Programs. Similar to above but locally initiated. Example: A 6K fun run co-sponsored by a local sporting goods store and the recreation department.

Public Programming At Commercial Facilities. Programs developed by recreation staff but held at commercial facilities. Examples: Therapeutic program day of bowling at commercial lanes, or teen club night at a skating rink.

Commercial Programs At Public Facilities. Just the opposite of above. An example would be a Karate School or Gymnastic Academy holding demonstrations or shows at the public recreation center.

Contracted Program Services. Private contracting to operate entire program segments. This does not refer to contracting individual instructors or sports officials. Example: Contracting a series of trips with a tour operator, or contracting a large ceramics program to a private ceramics shop.

Discounts, Premiums, And Other Incentives. Coupons, group discounts, and other marketing incentives offered by commercial enterprise. Examples: Discount coupons to a theme park or movie theatre provided for a summer day-camp program.

Scrounging. The creative procurement of equipment, supplies, funds, or human resources from commercial enterprise. Examples: Newsprint end rolls from a newspaper printer, or carpet remnants from a rug company.

Technical Assistance From Business. Program-related advice from equipment vendors, business managers, etc. Examples: Softball suppliers providing rulebooks for league coaches, Nautilas equipment salesman giving a staff training program.

Cooperation In Capital Development and Facility Management

Recent research (Crossley and Whilhite, 1985) has indicated that cooperative ventures in the areas of capital development and facility management may occur less frequently than program-related cooperation. This is probably due to reasons just the opposite of those factors previously cited for cooperative programs. That is, capital development and facility management involve a greater commitment of resources and are usually quite complex, both legally and operationally. Types of cooperation include:

Joint Capital Development. Combined public and private development of a recreation area or facility. An example is the private development and operation of a marina or campground at a regional park.

Contracted Maintenance. Contracts for private firms to maintain public facilities. Common examples include golf course maintenance, custodial services, garbage removal, etc.

Contracted Facilities and Concessions. Contracts for private enterprise to operate a publicly developed facility or provide a supplementary service. Examples are tennis centers, golf courses, snack bars, etc.

Corporate Gift Programs. Solicitation of corporate contributions for donations of land, facility development, facility maintenance, etc. Examples include the use of gift catalogs and corporate "Adopt A Park" projects.

Preliminary Considerations

There are a number of elements that must be considered before entering into any type of public-commercial cooperation. These preliminary considerations include the following:

Legal Basis. Does enabling legislation allow the public park and recreation agency to enter into cooperative arrangements and contracts with private enterprise? Do local ordinances restrict any cooperative ventures?

Attitudes. Will the public agency allow commercial enterprise a fair opportunity to realize its legitimate objective (product promotion, profits, etc.) or will bureaucracy cripple the cooperative venture?

Liability. Will a cooperative venture create unacceptable legal liability? Insurance riders and "hold harmless" clauses in contracts may help reduce this concern.

Personnel. Does the park and recreation department have personnel who are familiar with contracts, financial statements and other business procedures that may be involved with cooperative ventures? Are labor policies and wages compatible between cooperative partners?

Financial Systems. Does the public agency have a financial system which is flexible enough to accomodate cooperative ventures? An enterprise fund, or similar system, can often be the solution.

Community Attitudes. Are cooperative ventures with private enterprise acceptable to community perceptions of what public recreation should be?

If there are significant problems with any of these considerations, then the park and recreation administrator should reconsider developing cooperative ventures. On the other hand, if consideration of each element reveals a "green light," then it is time to proceed and investigate specific opportunities for public-commercial cooperation.

Finding Opportunities

One way to find potential partners for cooperative ventures is the shotgun approach. You fire off a round of letters or phone calls to every business in the area, and hope that some of your general appeals are read. A lot of time and effort will be spent and you may get some results if you are lucky.

A better approach is to be like an expert hunter and marksman. You initially inventory a variety of game but carefully select a particular type to target. Then you learn all you can about the target subject. After carefully planned stalking, you squeeze off an individualized high-powered message that scores a direct hit.

The short-lived Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service (1979) proposed just such an approach entitled the "Private Sector Inventory and Analysis." Each step is examined below.

Inventory. Find out what is in your community, including your own resources. What are your agency's needs for money, equipment, facilities, etc? Inventory the private sector, including retailers, manufacturers, trade associations, etc. Are there under-utilized private sector resources?

Analysis. Analyze how the private sector can match up with your specific needs. What are the products, services, target markets, company goals, and record of community involvement of each target business. How can your agency's needs and resources match their needs and resources?

Implementation. How will you approach a particular business? Which type of cooperative ventura should be proposed? Who is the best person in your organization to make the proposal? Who is the best person in the targeted business to contact?

Private Sector Resource Councils. Who should conduct the inventory and analysis of private/commercial resources? There are a number of possibilities. Field based department staff have numerous day to day contacts with the community and are positioned to discover numerous opportunities. The department administrative staff may have professional contacts with high level community business leaders. Advisory Board members may themselves be local business leaders who have contacts with numerous other business owners and managers. Some park and recreation departments have formed private sector resource councils comprised of field based staff, administrative staff, and private citizen/board members. These councils pool their knowledge and contacts in order to identify opportunities in the community for public-commercial cooperation.

A Key To Success: Transfer the Market Functions

While there are several theories concerning how to effectively develop cooperative ventures, one concept seems central to success. This concept is that the "market functions" of the venture should be transferred to whichever party can perform them most effectively.

"Market functions" are the tasks which must be accomplished to develop any product or service and move it from producer to consumer. These functions include: (a) market information, (b) product/service development, (c) financing and risk-bearing, (d) promotion, and (e) exchange mechanisms. For every recreation service ultimately provided to the public, someone must perform the market functions. Responsibility for the performance of a market function does not have to belong to a certain party in a cooperative venture. For the best chance of success however, each market function should be shifted to the party which is best able to perform it. This is the essence of the cooperative venture: the merging of two or more organizations' strengths, thus producing a greater net result than could be achieved independently. As related to parks and recreation services, the market functions are explained below.

Market Information. Prior to the development of a facility or program, someone must determine who the prospective customers/participants are and what it is that they want. What benefits do they seek in a recreation experience? When and where do they wish to participate? What are they willing to pay? To obtain this market information, significant expense for a needs assessment or market study may be required. It is possible that for some programs, seasoned professionals in your agency may have a working knowledge of the market characteristics.

Product/Service Development. Who is going to provide the land and/or facility needed for the cooperative venture? Who is going to plan the program and provide equipment, supplies, program staff, and other resources that must come together before any recreation service is offered to the public.

Financing and Risk-Bearing. Related to the market function of product/service development is the question of who will pay for the product/service. It may take substantial funding "up front" to get a facility built, a program equipped, and/or staff trained. Eventually, the burden of financing may be shifted to the consumer through either fees or taxes. In the meantime, there exists a "risk-bearing" element. Who will bear the financial burden if participation and revenue fail to materialize? Also, who has the legal liability for proper operation of the facility or program?

Promotion. Once a facility or program is developed, its benefits must be promoted. Responsibility for publicity, advertising, personal selling, or other promotional techniques must be accepted by at least one of the parties in a cooperative venture.

Exchange Mechanisms. The final market function involves all the tasks that must be fulfilled to effect the actual exchange with the consumer/participant. These tasks may include processing the phone-in, mail-in, or drop-in registration for a program. Also involved is the collection and handling of participant fees, if any. Finally, accounting-related tasks involve recording and organizing the expense and revenue data, processing purchase orders, pay employees, etc.

An Example of Market Function Trade-Offs

As mentioned previously, each market function should be performed by which ever partner in the cooperative venture can do it best. The following example of a public-commerical cooperative gymnastics program will illustrate how this works.

Your public recreation center conducts a thriving program of "beginning gymnastics and tumbling" in the center gym using folding mats and part-time instructors. Your participants will soon be ready to progress to more advanced skills, but you can't afford a set of gymnastic apparatus (vaulting horse, beam, bars, etc.) and you lack storage space for the equipment. Therefore, a cooperative program is developed with a nearby commercial gymnastics studio. Your recreation center will handle promotions: free news releases and public-service announcements, flyers through the schools, and flyer handouts to your beginner gymnastic participants. The recreation center will also conduct the program registration and receive the fee payments. Program leadership however, is contracted to the gymnastics studio where the children actually report for the class. There, the children get more advanced instruction on the elaborate equipment by the expert staff.

In the example above, the recreation center performed the function of providing the market information. Using its inherent advantages (some free media, permission for school flyers, and access to the beginner gymnastics class) the center also performed the promotion function. It also handled most of the exchange mechanisms and probably bore some of the legal risks. The commercial gymnastics studio, performed the product/service function by providing facility, equipment, and staff. It also shared in the financing and risk-bearing functions and in some of the exchange mechanisms. The ultimate result of this cooperation was that the recreation center facilitated a program for its participants without the expense of additional equipment or new storage facilities. It is likely that the gymnastic studio gave a discount to the participants since the studio's own expense for promotion and registration were reduced from normal levels. Also, quite important is the fact that the enterprise reached a new market and optimized its facility use through increased volume. In a nutshell, the entire program was good business for both parties.

Who Gets Which Function?

There is no standard script regarding which partner in the cooperative venture should assume responsibility for a given market function. When conceptualizing the venture, the recreation administrator should think through the entire project. He/she should analyze each potential cooperative partner and determine which market function each partner is best suited to perform. A game plan can then be developed and presented to those potential partners. In making that presentation, the recreation administrator must learn to look for the economic advantages that accrue to both partners in the venture. It is much easier to sell the idea to a potential partner if you can show him/her the benefits that may be realized. Some of the most persuasive arguments are: (1) Product/service exposure through public-agency media contacts, (2) Opportunity for new markets to sample the product/service in a receptive environment, (3) Chance to optimize a facility's fixed investment through increased volume, especially important in off-peak periods, (4) potential operational profits from the cooperative program itself, and (5) public relations value.

Conclusion

Public-Commercial Cooperation is not just a tool for financial survival. Rather it is an approach which can enable a Park and Recreation Department to expand and diversify its programs and services. The approach involves inventory and analysis of opportunties followed by implementation through trade-offs of essential market functions. Both large and small communities can benefit from cooperative ventures with the private/commercial sector.

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MEASUREMENT IN RECREATION AND LEISURE: THE PRELIMINARY DEVELOPMENT OF A COMPREHENSIVE LEISURE RATING SCALE

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Abstract

This paper summarizes the need for developing quality measurement tools in leisure and recreation. It also describes an attempt to develop a "Comprehensive Leisure Rating Scale (CLEIRS)." The development of the CLEIRS was based heavily on existing leisure theory and research. Results suggested that reliable and valid measures of the concepts within the CLEIRS could be developed. Additional questions for further research were also raised.

Need for Measurement in Recreation and Leisure

The development of any scientific discipline is predicated upon the ability of professionals to precisely and accurately measure phenomena which are of interest to that discipline. In the physical sciences, for example, measurement has achieved an astounding level of sophistication. Physicists and astronomers are able to routinely measure changes which occur in the most distant of stars and they are able to measure activity of particles so small that their existence as matter is a debatable issue.

Certain social science disciplines have also developed approaches to the measurement of phenomena which are within the parameters of their areas of concern. Psychologists routinely measure such variables as stress, self concept, source of motivation, locus of control, anxiety, attitudes, intentions, arousal, and aggression. Educators have devised ways of assessing (measuring) such variables as readiness for school, learning disabilities, and reading ability. Academic subject matter tests are also routinely administered by educators to measure achievement of students at all educational levels.

The significance of measurement is that is enables professionals within the field to complete basic statement, "if X, then Y." The ability to measure the extent of cancer within afflicted human beings, for example, has enabled physicians to effectively plan treatments; if chemotherapy then less cancer. Similar, measurement of achievement might enable an educator to make the following statement: "If computer assisted instruction is used, then achievement of students will be increased."

The common elements of these examples are that, in both instances, precise measurement of an important phenonema was required and procedures were specified which established a probable cause of those phenonema. The identification of such cause and effect relationships is at the heart of scientific inquiry. From the development of measurement tools and the subsequent identification of complex relationships between critical phenomena have emerged such marvelous gadgets as thermostats, microwave ovens, artifical hearts, computers, nuclear energy, space travel, electrical appliances, and most of the "necessities" and conveniences of the modern world. Our society owes a considerable debt to scientists from established disciplines who have devised ways of measuring these phenonema.

The field of recreation and leisure lags far behind the more established scientific disciplines in terms of the development of measurement tools. Two major reasons for the limited development may be considered. First, the recreation and leisure field has not sufficiently identified a manageable number of theoretical positions to delineate the phenonema which should be the focus of its interests. That is, the field has not identified what the "Y" might represent in the "if X then Y" statement. Although a definitive answer does not exist, the "Y" has been the subject of considerable speculation. A representative list of outcomes which have been the subject of leisure research includes such diverse variables as physical fitness, self concept, participation in activities, sense of freedom, socialization of the young, cognitive development, economic growth, sense of community, wellness, rehabilitation, resource management, motivation, leisure attitudes, and degree of specialization in recreation activities. It is important to note that this list is representative; it is not comprehensive or all-inclusive. This list alone, however, is obviously much too diverse to serve as the focus of the efforts of a single discipline.

The second reason that the recreation and leisure field lags far behind than scientific disciplines is a logical consequence of the first. If the field cannot delineate its area of concern, then neither can it develop needed instrumentation to measure important phenomena. That is, until the parameters of the field are defined through theory development and high quality measurement techniques are developed to measure important phenomena within those parameters, no cogent science of the study of leisure may merge. In the absence of such a "science of leisure" key questions with regard to programming, leadership, facility design, therapeutic modalities, and other aspects of leisure services must, by necessity, be answered through speculation, observing tradition and current practices, or through adherence to guidelines established by self-avowed "experts."

Despite the virtual absence of theoretically founded parameters, a few attempts have been made to develop tools for the measurement of leisure related phenomena. A recent review of some of the most popular of these was conducted by Howe (1984). In that review, Howe examined a variety of leisure assessment tools which are widely used in therapeutic recreation. The instruments reviewed ranged from recreation activity interest finders to measures of leisure attitudes and measures of leisure states. Based on her review, Howe (1984, p. 237) offered the following concerns relative to the status of leisure assessment:

> In addition to the lack of availability of instruments...(a) general lack of quality (exists) in terms of validity, reliability, and level of sophistication of assessment instrumentation. The instruments tend to be underdeveloped in terms of having a substantive theoretical basis of support and having been subjected to norming procedures using large and representative samples.

Thus, Howe's review of major measurement tools in the recreation field supports the contention that both quality measurement and a theoretical basis are greatly lacking.

In addition to Howe's (1984) concerns, it should be noted that available instrumentation tends to not be transferable across different populations. This problem is especially true when measurement tools are used to assess leisure functioning of clients in therapeutic recreation settings. A self report (questionnaire) format, which was designed for use with children with orthopedic impairments, for example, would not be appropriate for use with adults or senior citizens. The diversity of populations which recreation specialists serve makes the problem of standardization of administration and interpretation of leisure assessment instrumentation very difficult.

Thus, three major shortcomings exist with most leisure assessment tools: (1) the absence of a theoretical basis for measuring the variables (phenomena) which the instruments are designed to measure, (2) the shortage of appropriate reliability and validity data for available instrumentation, and (3) the absence of transfessibility across different populations. This study was designed to develop a preliminary version of a leisure assessment tool which addressed these shortcomings. In developing this "Comprehensive Leisure Rating Scale" (CLEIRS), existing leisure theory was utilized, preliminary estimates of reliability and validity were established from pilot test data, and a highly transferable approach to measurement was utilized.

Procedures

Overview of the Instrumentation

Five scales were developed for inclusion within the CLEIRS. These scales included the following:

(1) A rating scale version of the Leisure Diagnostic Battery (RLDB) (Ellis and Witt, 1982).
(2) A revised version of the Brief Leisure Rating Scale (BLRS) (Ellis and Witt, 1984).
(3) A measure of individual's depth of recreation activity competence, on Navar's (1980) State Technical Institute Leisure Assessment Program (STILAPD).
(4) A measure of individual's breadth of skills in recreation activities, based on Navar's (1980) State Technical Institute Leisure Assessment Program (STILAPD).
(5) A scale designed to measure client's degrees of independence in day to day living, on their "personal management skills" (MGT).

To facilitate transferability, each of the instruments was constructed in a rating scale format. In order to administer the instrument, therefore, raters considered the characteristics of a particular client and indicated on a five point scale, the extent to which each CLEIRS item was "characteristic" of that client. An item from the BLRS, for example, was "the resident is uncooperative." "Five" was used to indicate that the statement was "always characteristic of the resident" and a "one" was used to indicate that the statement was "never characteristic of the resident."

Clients and Raters

Case workers within the Missouri Department of Mental Health were trained to be administrators of the CLEIRS instrument during March of 1985. Following training, the administrators completed CLEIRS ratings on 174 clients from various mental health facilities throughout the state of Missouri. The average age of the clients for whom ratings were obtained was 69.31 (range 54-92). Females comprised 60.9 percent of the sample and 38.5 percent were males. Eight clients (4.6%) were from Residential Care Facility II facilities, and 83 (47.7%) were from Intermediate Care Facilities and Skilled Nursing Facilities. Data concerning the living arrangements of 46 clients (26.4%) were not available.

Development of the Instrumentation

Because existing definitions of leisure fall within three general categories; ie., leisure is time, leisure is activity, and leisure is a state of mind, CLEIRS was designed such that measurement within each of these definitional categories would be possible. Following the delineation of these three categories as the major domains of CLEIRS, the theoretical and empirical basis of each area was explored through a major literature review.

Measurement within the "State of Mind" Conceptualization of Leisure: The RLDB and BLRS

Development within the "Leisure is a state of mind" area was based largely on the Leisure Diagnostic Battery (LDB) conceptualization of leisure (Ellis and Witt, 1984). The LDB is a leisure assessment tool which is founded in social-psychological theory. It assumes that the essence of leisure functioning is a sense of "freedom to" participate in recreation and leisure activities. The existence of this sense of freedom is dependent upon a number of variables, including one's attributional patterns in assigning causes to successes and failures and one's "freedom from" certain environmental and interpersonal barriers to leisure. The LDB measurement of perceived freedom involves the assessment of four key concepts:

* Intrinsic Motivation
* Perceived Leisure Competence
* Perceived Leisure Control
* Playfulness

Individuals whose scores are high on measures of these variables are assumed to have a strong sense of "perceived freedom" in leisure. They are assumed to be self sufficient and to be deriving optimal satisfaction and benefits from their leisure experiences.

The LDB conceptualization specifies that the polar opposite of perceived freedom is a sense of helplessness. Seligman (1981) identified the following symptoms of helplessness:

* Low self esteem
* Apathy; lack of motivation
* Low beliefs about one's ability
* Hostility, uncooperativeness
* Anxiety
* Depression

Helplessness is a particularly important area for assessment in therapeutic recreation because it can severely limit the effectiveness of rehabilitation efforts. Langer (1983), in fact, has reported data which indicates that premature death may occur among elderly nursing home residents as a result of the sense of helplessness.

Although the theory underlying the LDB specifies that perceived freedom and helplessness are opposite ends of the same continuum, existing research has identified only a weak correlation between measures of those concepts (Ellis and Niles, 1985). That is, inconsistent with existing theory, a given individual might score high on both the measure of helplessness and the measure of perceived freedom. A considerable amount of future research is needed in order to develop an understanding of the reason for the existence of this discrepancy between existing theory and actual data. Because existing data suggest the possibility that perceived freed' and helplessness may be distinct concepts, measures both of those were developed within the CLEIRS.

For the measure of perceived freedom, the 25 item short form of the LDB (SLDB) (Witt and Ellis, in press) was adapted and extended. In its final form, 31 items were included on the "Rating Scale Leisure Diagnostic Battery" (RLDB). Each item on the RLDB was either adapted from the SLDB or was written specifically for the CLEIRS using the original concepts of the LDB. Scores were obtained by summing across the 31 items. High scores were considered to indicate high degrees of perceived freedom in leisure.

The measure of helplessness was derived from the 26 item "Brief Leisure Rating Scale" (BLRS), as reported by Ellis and Niles (1985). The BLRS is based on the dimensions of helplessness identified by Seligman and his associates (Seligman, 1974; Abramson, Gardner, and Seligman, 1984). As with the RLDB, a rating scale format is used. The sum of the 26 items represented each client's degree of helplessness.

Measurement Within the "Activity" Conceptualization of Leisure: The STILAPB and the STILAPD

The STILAPB was derived from Nancy Navar's State Technical Institute Leisure Assessment Program (STILAP) assessment tool (Navar, 1980). STILAP includes 12 recreation activity competency areas. The underlying assumption of that instrument is that in order to be functioning well at leisure, individuals should have skills in certain types of activities. One of these activity competency areas, for example, is "the client has physical or mental skills which enables participation in a predominantly social situation." For the STILAPB, raters indicated clients' breadth of skills in each of 10 competency areas. Two of the competency areas from STILAP were not used on this preliminary version of the STILAPB because they were considered to be inappropriate for the institutionalized schizophrenic population. The ten ratings were summed to obtain an indication of clients' general levels of breadth of activity skills.

The STILAPD involved an assessment of the same competency areas as the STILAPB. Rather than indicating the breadth of clients' activity skills, however, raters indicated depth of each clients' activity skills. Thus, clients who scored high on a particular competency area in terms of depth might be considered specialists (relative to their peers) in that activity competency area. The sum of ratings across the 10 competency are was considered to be an indication of clients' ι ... al levels of skills in recreation activities.

Measurement Within the "Leisure is Time" Conceptualization of Leisure

The question, "what is time" is a topic of continual debate. Various authors have reminded us that time is more than the mechanical phenomenon which is measured by clocks and watches. Time is also a perception. It passes quickly when we are having fun and it plods along at a snail's pace when we are waiting in line for appointments. Our bodies also seem to operate within "biological time," we must eat, sleep, wake, and respond to our physiological needs as our biological pressures occur. Time is a difficult concept to measure and operationalize.

Due to limited resources, no attempt was made with the present study to devise a measurement approach within the "leisure is time" conceptualization of leisure. The concept, however, seems to be of critical importance (most people define leisure in terms of time) and future developmental efforts of the CLEIRS will address the development of an approach to the measurement of leisure as it relates to time.

A Scale for Validation: The Personal Management Skills Scale

"Personal Management Skills" measure (MGT) was developed for validation purposes. Each of the measures within the "state of mind" and the "activity" domains each relate to a general independence concept. An individual who has a high degree of perceived freedom in leisure, a low degree of helplessness, and great breadth and depth of leisure activity interests could be thought of as being much more independent than a peer who lacks those attributes. Scores on the RLDB, BLRS, STILAPB, and STILAPD, therefore, should correlate significantly with a measure of independence.

The Personal Management Skills scale was designed to measure client's degrees of independence in daily living. Examples of items on the scale were "the resident manages her/his own money," "the resident manages his/her own medications," and "the resident knows the staff members." Raters indicated either "yes" or "no" to each item. The sum of scores across the 15 items comprised the Personal Management Skills score.

Analysis of Data

Three general questions were addressed through the analysis of data. These questions were as follows:

1. What is the degree of internal consistency within the various measures which are included in the CLEIRS instrument?

2. To what extent do the measures within the CLEIRS seem to be valid?

3. Which items on the CLEIRS instrument seemed to be providing the most effective degree of discrimination?

Reliability

Each of the three major questions which were addressed by the study required a different form of statistical analysis. The questions of reliability of the measures were addressed through the computation of Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for each of the five scales. No analyses of reliability in terms of stability or interrater agreement were possible with the pilot test data.

Validity

The question of validity was examined through two types of analyses. First, because of the instruments within the CLEIRS were assumed to converge on a unitary concept of "degree of independence," a matrix of correlations between the five scale scores was factor analyzed. The principal axis form of factor analysis was utilized, with coefficients of multiple determination used as preliminary estimates of communality. A one factor solution was hypothesized.

In addition to converging on a unitary concept, the set of scales was expected to vary independently of sex and to be inversely related to age. Degree of independence would be expected to decrease as clients get older. Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were calculated to test this hypothesis.

Finally, evidence of validity was expected to be found in variation in the scale scores across the different residential settings in which the clients were housed: RCF I, RCF II, and ICF/SNF. An RCF I is a facility with a "home-like" atmosphere with smaller, non-institutionalized rooms. Residents in an RCF I setting have access to such facilities as kitchens and laundries. Residents in an RCF II facility have diet supervision, have their medications administered to them and may be under the supervision of health care by a licensed physician. Generally, the residents in RCF II facilities have lesser degrees of decision making and choice than residents in RCF I facilities. Finally, in the ICF/SNF settings, residents lack choice in almost all matters (when they may bathe, get up, eat, etc.). In ICF/SNF settings, it is common for residents to be seen sitting in a room and not know the name of the person next to them.

Based on the above descriptions, it is quite obvious that the independence of clients should vary across the different facilities. Because independence is largely a matter of the presence of choice in an individual's environment and opportunities for choice are lacking "...in almost all matters" in an ICF/SNF facility, residents in ICF/SNF settings were expected to have the lowest levels of independence, as measured by the CLEIRS instruments. A greater degree of choice is available to residents in RCF II facilities than to residents in ICF/SNF facilities. The highest degree of independence, however, would be expected in the "home-like atmosphere" of the RCF II facility.

If the CLEIRS instruments provide a valid measure of independence, scores should discriminate among the three settings. Clients in RCF I facilities should show the greatest degree of independence, followed by RCF II clients and ICF/SNF clients, respectively. This hypothesis was tested through multiple discriminant analysis. Total scale scores for the five CLEIRS instruments were used as discriminating variables and the "Setting" variable (RCF I, RCF II, ICF/SNF) was the group membership variable.

Results

Reliability

The internal consistency estimate for each of the five scales is presented in Table 1. As can be seen from review of that table, the reliability estimates of the RLDB, STILAPB, and STILAPD scales all exceeded .90. The reliability of the BLRS was .79. Finally, the fourteen item "Personal Management" scale produced an alpha of .77.

Table 1

Alpha Reliability Estimates

of CLEIRS Scales

		N of Items	ALPHA
RLDB	Perceived Freedom	31	.96
BLRS	Helplessness	26	.79
STILAPB	Breadth	10	.97
STILAPD	Depth	10	.96
MGT	Personal Management	14	.77

Validity

The results of the factor analysis of the matrix of correlations among the five CLEIRS scales is summarized in Table 2. As expected, only one factor produced a eigenvalue in excess of 1.0. That factor accounted for 56.6 percent of the variance of the CLEIRS scales. All loadings exceeded .40 and were in the expected direction. The measure of helplessness (BLRS) loaded negatively (-.41) and all measures of freedom and independence produced positive loadings in excess of .60. Thus, a high degree of validity was present in the results of the factor analysis.

Table 2

Correlations and Factor Analysis of

CLEIRS Scale Scores

Measure	Factor Loadings	RLDB	BLRS	STILP	STLB	MGT
RLDB	.87	1.0	-.39	.62	.55	.63
BLRS	-.41	-.39	1.0	-.24	-.29	-.27
STILAPD	.73	.62	-.24	1.0	.58	.47
STILAPB	.68	.55	-.29	.58	1.0	.40
MGT	.66	.63	-.27	.47	.40	1.0

All coefficients are significant at $p < .01$

Principal Axis factoring
R^2 as initial communality estimate
One factor explained 56.6 percent of the variance.

Correlations between the CLEIRS instruments and gender, age, and years in the facility are presented in Table 3. As expected, no significant relationship was found between gender and any of the CLEIRS instruments. Weak, but significant relationships were found between age and each of the CLEIRS instruments except the BLRS.

Significant, positive relationships were identified between years in the facility and the two measures of the activity dimensions (STILAPB and STILAPD).

Table 3

Correlations between CLEIRS Instruments

and Gender, Age, and Years in the Institution

Scale	Gender	Age	Years in Facility
RLDB	.087	-.204 *	.008
BLRS	-.001	.036	-.250 *
STILAPD	.068	-.208 *	.189 *
STILAPB	.090	-.232 *	.298 *
MGT	.057	-.269 *	.033

*$p < .01$

Finally, a weak significant negative relationship (-.250) was found between years in the facility and BLRS scores. The magnitude and direction of these relationships was quite consistent with prior expectations; evidence of validity was present in these results.

The result of the discriminant analysis across settings (RCF I, RCF II, ICF/SNF) is summarized in Table 4. Contrary to expectations, no significant difference was found between the three settings on the CLEIRS measures. Further, inspection of the group means on each of the three variables revealed that scores were very similar. Thus, unlike previous results, the results of the discriminant analysis raised some important questions concerning the validity of the CLEIRS.

Table 4

Discriminant Analysis and Group Means

CLEIRS Scale Scores Across Settings

Wilk's Lambda	X	DF	p
.902	12.682	10	.242

GROUP MEANS

Setting	N	BLRS	RLDB	STILAPD	STILAPB	MGT
RCFI	8	77.125	91.000	25.00	24.000	24.125
RCFII	37	75.108	89.027	23.730	23.216	23.270
ICF/SNF	83	76.867	80.747	21.072	19.750	22.012

Conclusion

This study provided insight into some major questions, but it left unanswered several others. The results of the study do provide support for continued research on the development of instrumentation to measure perceived freedom, helplessness, and recreation activity competencies. Data very strongly suggest that valid and reliable measures of these theoretically founded concepts may be developed. In addition, the results of the factor analysis and the strong correlations between the activity competency measures and the measures of perceived freedom and helplessness suggest the existence of a unitary "leisureability factor." As many practitioners have assumed for some time, individual's leisure behavior (activity competencies) seems to be closely related to their perceptions of themselves in leisure (perceived freedom and helplessness).

Major questions were also left unanswered by this study. Perhaps one of the most important of these involved the relationship between freedom and helplessness. Existing theory would lead us to believe that the correlation between these variables would be negative and quite strong. Data from this study, however, reveal only a weak negative correlation between helplessness and perceived freedom. As Ellis and Niles (1985) pointed out in a discussion of a similar finding in a different data set, this may indicate that perceived freedom and helplessness are distinctly different concepts rather than being opposite ends of the same continuum. If the concepts are indeed distinct, some revision in the "continuum models" of therapeutic recreation service may be needed.

Several additional questions were left unanswered by this study. Among these are the intriguing question of how the "time" variable might be measured and how it might fit into a "comprehensive" leisure rating scale. Another question was raised by the lack of significant variation between the CLEIRS measures and the institutional setting variable. Is it possible that raters use a "within setting" subjective norm when completing CLEIRS rating? Practical questions related to the use of CLEIRS as an assessment tool in therapeutic recreation also need to be addressed. How familiar must a rater be with clients before a valid measure can be taken? To what extent would raters' comments and the perceptions of clients about themselves be similar? How may knowledge of clients' perceived freedom and helplessness be used to improve service delivery?

This study was an initial effect to address the critical need for development of reliable and valid measurement tools to assess leisure related phenomena. Numerous blind alleys, perplexing questions, and challenging issues lie ahead. Only through deliberate attempts to link measurement with theory and to develop psychometrically sound approaches to measurement may significant progress toward a cogent science and technology of recreation and leisure be made.

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PERSON CENTERED CURRICULUM: WHAT MOTIVATION RESEARCH SUGGESTS FOR LEISURE SERVICES CURRICULA

By Larry L. Neal
University of Oregon

Abstract

From considerable information collected over the past five years and drawing from selected -- supportive references both within the leisure services profession and the general literature, a case is made to emphasize the human and interpersonal aspects of curriculum. Too much emphasis is given to the learning of specific techniques and knowledge that has a short marketable life. Understanding better one's self is deemed central to curriculum emphasis and is supported by the motivational discrepancy/congruency research.

Stand up and be seen
Speak up and be heard
Sit down and be appreciated
—Anon*

As teachers, these words provide direction and purpose as we focus on Excellence in Teaching. Much wisdom is exhibited in three dimensions: the actions taken (stand, speak, sit) the results of such action (seen, heard and appreciated), and the sequence of the action.

Teaching is a very visable profession. From elementary school on, literally and figuratively the teacher stands at the head of the class. Teaching is a noble profession and requires preparation and professional commitment. To engender new and exciting ideas and then share the same with willing learners is the apex of the teaching/learning hierarchy. Importing knowledge and assisting learners, young and old, in the productive process of inquiry and critical thinking is a most high calling. Some say with tongue in cheek ... "Teaching is its own reward (because they're not adequately, monetarily compensated). Great truth comes from the observation and acknowledgement that when identifying great teachers at all levels of education a common characteristic is internal motivation — to draw on their own resources and to control much of their own environment (e.g., their ability to reinforce themselves).

This is a call to stand up as a leisure services profession. Such illuminating articles as the ones found in this volume suggest we are speaking up and being heard. It will make a big difference in the lives of many students.

Leisure Service Training and Education — Follow the Example of Business

Leisure services curriculum development is central to the profession and often is discussed in light of what should be the content. Actually much time could be saved if we did not look first at content but we emphasized direction, purpose, actual jobs and job tasks. If this becomes central to curricular design then many would argue that we've reduced the task to the formulation of job tasks or skills -- is that our primary mission? It seems this argument is shallow. Note the success of contemporary investigation into successful businesses (ala In Search of Excellence). This same strategy should be employed in leisure services.

*Presented by Gerald Bruce, Prince George, B.C., May 1985.

If emphasis on content, direction, purpose, jobs and specific tasks in the profession do not answer the primary objective of curriculum development -- what does? The answer is not simple yet below is cited a primary thrust and its rationale.

The primary thrust of a leisure services curriculum should be an intensive and exhaustive look at the successful people who make up the leisure services profession. This is not unlike Peters' and Watermans' search of successful businesses, or that of Levering, et al. in The 100 Best Companies to Work for in America (1984). Answers to the following should be pursued:

Who and what are the qualities of leaders of excellence in leisure services?

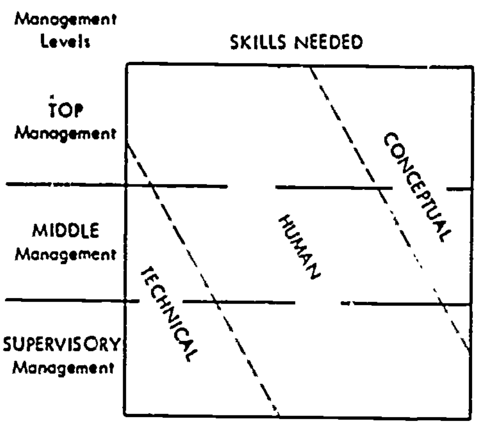
What are the specific settings, working conditions and requirements of these leaders?

Are they happy, productive, and successful in their jobs? [and many other variables], followed by the key question —

What variables are there that lead to job satisfaction, sustained productivity and advancement?

Curricular development should focus on these variables. It is acknowledged at the onset that there are conceptual, technical and human skills required at all levels of leadership and that top leadership requires a disproportionately higher amount of conceptual skills while the supervisory managers require the same disproportionately high amount of technical skills. Consistent with Hersey and Blanchard's (1972) skill model, all three levels of management require considerable human skills. They cite the legendary and visionary John D. Rockefeller (1839-1937) as placing these three skills in proper perspective. He stated, "I will pay more for the ability to deal with people than any other ability under the sun." They go on to cite these Bergen and Haney's findings: "According to a report by the AMA, an overwhelming majority of the two hundred managers (surveyed)... agreed that the most important single skill of an executive is his ability to get along with people. In this survey, management rated this ability more vital than intelligence, decisiveness, knowledge, or job skills."

FIGURE 1. Management skills necessary at various levels of a business organization.



The preceeding model, depicted by Hersey and Blanchard, represents the skills needed with heavy emphasis on human skills. This first appeared in print in the late 1960's — a period of personal rebellion against the organization and was maintained in the 1970's where the Hedonistic thrust (Yankelovich, 1981) bloomed. The emphasis on human values is even greater now than two decades ago, with such popular phrases as:

> "Management from the bottom up and by walking around" (Peters and Waterman, 1982)
>
> "Help your employees get everything they deserve" (Townsend, 1984, p. xiv)
>
> "The more high technology around us, the more the need for human touch," (Naisbitt, 1984, p. 51) and "The new leader is a facilitator, not an order giver," (Naisbitt, 1984, p. 209)
>
> "How you are is what you get" and "You are your attitude", (Chapter titles by Geba, 1985).

Postscript to Maslow and McGregor

Robert Townsend, through his emphasis on participative management, endorses, argues for and proves the effectiveness of humanising business so that people (workers) are the winners. He contends that if they (workers) win, then you (as administrators) win. Only then. Referencing Maslow's hierarchy of needs (e.g., psychological, safety, social, ego and developmental) and McGregor's X and Y Theory (e.g., these things we know about man: (1) He is a wanting animal, (2) His behavior is determined by unsatisfied needs that he wants to satisfy and (3) His needs form a value Maslow-type hierarchy that is internal, not external). Townsend infers that managers know little about human behavior and how to motivate individuals. He contends that the first three need levels (psychological, safety and social) are "...pretty well satisfied in America's work force today. So we would expect man's organizations to be designed to feed the ego and develop needs." But we're not! "A look at the rewards we're offering our people today: higher wages, medical benefits, vacations, pensions, profit sharing, gymnasiums, swimming pools, bowling and baseball teams — Not one can be enjoyed on the job. You've got to leave work, get sick, or retire first. No wonder people aren't having fun on the job." (Townsend, 1984)

Application: Training of students and curriculum development must emphasize clearly the person-centered, inter-personal dimension. Courses which clearly address greater awareness of one's own abilities in dealing with self and others should be stressed. This relates closely to the subject areas of the top motives for job satisfaction and increased productivity.

Building a Curriculum

The previous emphasis on personal and interpersonal instruction sets the stage for this treatis. This is not a data based article. It serves to address the issue of curriculum development based upon findings previously acquired from professionals in the full-time employment of leisure services agencies throughout the United States, Canada, Australia and most recently in Central America. Before reflecting on the findings and subsequent model as a basis for curriculum planning, I wish to make three observations:

1) We're not bold enough as a profession — we need to speak out and capture the imagination of "shakers and doers," decision-makers and the public at large.

2) Several indicators recently prompt me to voice concern about the direction we seem to be placing our emphasis with regard to content we project as being most important in curriculum development/implementation — I see a thrust away from personal and interpersonal enlightenment and toward the technical and specialized skills often associated with trade schools or diploma/certificate or associate arts curricula.

3) Contemporary books such as Further up the Organization, White Collar Waste, New Rules, Megatrends, In Search of Excellence and others record the follies of the past and project the need to emphasize the personal qualities of interest in and concern for others and self as having high priority in self-improvement and correspondingly advancement resulting in increased job satisfaction/productivity.

These will be addressed briefly before the apparent trends of motivation research as related.

Motivation Research in Leisure Services

Figure 2 lists previous, current and proposed motivation studies conducted under the auspices of the author on graduate students. In these skills, a striking similarity of responses was received from very divergent sub-populations and from different countries. In all studies a 20 item motive stem questionnaire was employed to determine either the respondents own perceptions of what were the relative high and low motivators, or these same perceptions by supervisors of their leisure service employees.

Figure 2. Motivation Discrepancy Studies—Completed, In Progress and Planned

Status	Setting/Agency	Years Conducted	Geographical Area	Group Characteristics	Usable Sample
Completed	Voluntary Youth Agencies; Boy Scout Executives & Paid Staff	84-85	BSA, Western Region (9 western states)	Superiors n = 36, and "outstanding" Subordinates n = 36; Matched pairs (also 36	N = 100
	State Park/Regional Park Personnel	84-85	State of Idaho	Predominantly Middle Mgmt. Regional Park Rangers Responded as subordinates	N = 70
	Municipal P/R Agencies	83-84	Nationwide in Australia	Superiors n = 50 and Subordinates n = 50; not matched pairs	N = 100
	Local, Regional & State Level Administrators	83	Throughout California 26th Annual Admin Institute	Diverse Park & Recreation Administrators responded for themselves (i.e.,..	N = 82
	Therapeutic Recreators	82-83	Nationwide Sample in United States	Clinical n = 48; Community n = 124 matched pairs	N = 172
	Volunteers in Leisure Services	82-83	Salem, OR	Paid Supervisors and their volunteer staff (adapted instrument)	N = 77
	Municipal Park & Recreation	81-82	Nationwide in United States	Four levels within each (of 23) agencies, matched pairs	N = 262
Current	Leisure Leaders in Central America	Summer 85	Administered at International Convention, San Jose, Costa Rica Aruba, Honduras Columbia, Venezuela, Panama, Dominican Republic, and Puerto Rico	Diverse Leisure Leaders, Predominantly of youth; responded as Subordinates (i.e., for themselves)	N = 48
Proposed	Municipal Administrators	Nov. 85	Alberta, Canada Rocky Mt. Resort, Banff	Middle Level Program Admin. Respond as Subordinates (i.e., for themselves)	N = 80
	Major Urban Area	86 or 87	London, England or Hong Kong	Similar to US Study Design (matched pairs)	?
	Large & Small Municipal Park/Rec Agencies	Nov 85 to Nov 86	Nationwide—throughout English speaking Canada	Similar to US Study Design (matched pairs) at least 3 agencies/Province	N = 300+

The findings of these various studies were markedly alike. Even with the vast geographical distance (e.g., Canada/US to Australia), the differences in leadership roles (e.g., agency administrators vs. clinical therapeutic recreation specialists., and the cultural variances and different languages (e.g. US vs. Central American spanish speaking countries) -- the relative rank order of each study showed a consistent pattern of response. Remember:

*all respondents are/were practicing professionals in leisure services;
*all responded to the same motives;
*there are/were 20 different motives to rank;
*one could characterize the recent era in which the studies took place (1981-85) as one of economic hard times with cutbacks in labor forces, inflation most often exceeding raises, etc.
*The respondents were under no obligation to respond in a certain way; no sanctions were imposed and the "halo effect" was neutralized through, in most cases, annonymity of the researcher(s).

Given the above observations you are invited to assess yourself.

A Paradox: Popular Priorities and Current Findings. If offered an increase in salary, would you turn it down? Of course not. If, through negotiations, workers in your agency were offered a good benefits package (e.g., longer vacations, health benefits, etc.), would you be interested? Absolutely. If offered a promotion to a more responsible job, would you accept? In most cases one would appreciate advancement. These and other motives were asked of all the respondants in all the countries and leisure services positions. [redacted] If you said high or in the middle you were wrong. If you said low you were right. If you said very low you would have been even more representative of the respondents. This could come as a surprise or a shock --- for wages, promotion and benefits consistently ranked in the lower quartile (ranks 16th through 20th). With these rankings so low -- what are the motives which consistently ranked higher and what implications might these responses have on curriculum design? Such items as "Doing important and worthwhile work," the opportunity to identify with "Quality work," the perceived freedom of "Job growth" and a "Chance to do interesting work" -- all lead the list of motives. All twenty motives are listed later in Figure 4. But before listing the twenty motives it would be helpful to clarify the use of social psychologist Fredrick Herzbergs' typology of motives. Nearly two decades ago he studied professional people and asked them to recall good and bad peak experiences. Grouping his answers, Herzberg divided the responses into two spheres. The two are simply identified in Figure 3.

FIGURE 3. Herzberg's Motivation/Satisfaction Typology

Dissatisfiers Extrinsic Factors Hygiene Factors	Satisfiers Intrinsic Factors Motivators
*Company policy and administration *Supervision *Salary/Benefits *Inter-personal Relations *Working Conditions	*Achievement *Recognition of Achievement *The work itself *Responsibility *Advancement

One set of factors he found contributed to motivation and job satisfaction which he labeled intrinsic factors or MOTIVATORS. The other group he labeled extrinsic factors and relating to the concept of preventive medicine, he called them HYGIENE factors. Herzberg reasoned that hygiene factors could "prevent" job dissatisfaction, but could not create or sustain true job satisfaction.

Application: It is reasoned that we must undertake what motives truly have lasting power and will sustain interest and motivate leisure services employees toward greater accomplishment (productivity). This is of highest priority. Herein lies the insight we need to know as we prepare college students for leisure services positions and structure curricula that will address the understanding, knowledge, skills and appreciation of such motives.

Let us now look at the twenty motives, their relative ranking and the priority given Herzbergs MOTIVATORS as opposed to HYGIENE factors. While specific findings are available and important -- this article focuses on the broad trends and curriculum implications of the same.

Figure 4. Rank Order and Comparison of Motive Stems of Recreation Leaders in Various Countries by Motive, Motive Type, and Country.

	CENTRAL AMERICA REC/YOUTH LEADERS (N=[illegible])	UNITED STATES & CANADIAN MUNICIPAL REC/LEADERS (N=[illegible])	AUSTRALIAN MUNICIPAL REC/LEADERS (N=[illegible])	RANKING OVERALL ALL COUNTRIES
(L) QUALITY WORK	1 o	2	6	2
(D) IMPT & WORTHWHILE WORK	2 H	1	1	1
(F) ACTUAL PERSONAL WORK RELATED GOALS	3 o	6	6	6
(E) INTERESTING WORK	4 o	4	4	4
(I) JOB GROWTH	2 o	2	2	3
(S) SHARED DECISION MAKING	6 o	3	3	5
(N) HELP AGENCY ATTAIN GOALS	7+ o	12	7	8
(P) BEING PART OF A TEAM	8 o	8	8	7
(R) FEEDBACK ON JOB PERFORMANCE	9+ o	17	14	14
(C) INCREASED FREEDOM ON JOB	10 o	12	15	12
(J) GOOD WORKING CONDITIONS	11 o	10	13	11
(B) JOB SECURITY	12 o	9	10	10
(L) GETTING ALONG WITH CO-WORKERS	13 o	16	11	13
(Q) GETTING ALONG WITH SUPERVISOR	14- c	7	8	8
(A) APPOINTED LEADER	15 n	20	16	17
(K) GOOD WAGES	16 o	14	17	18
(M) APPRECIATION BY SUPERVISOR	17- o	11	12	16
(T) GOOD BENEFITS PACKAGE	18 o	16	19	19
(H) CHANCE FOR PROMOTION	19 o	18	18	18
(O) RAISES & OTHER AWARDS	20 o	19	20	20

KEY: + = high Central American ranking; low ranking elsewhere
o = variable ranking between countries
- = low Central American ranking; high ranking elsewhere
M = Herzburg's Typology -- Motivators
H = Herzberg's Typology -- Hygiene Factors

The twenty motives have been further classified as motivators and hygiene factors and placed in a model to more clearly delineate between Herzberg's typology and to break out into four basic clusters shown in model below.

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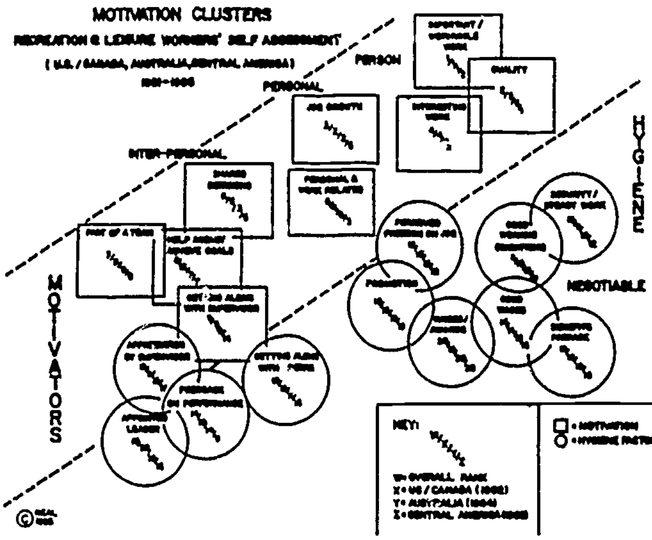
FIGURE 5.



The four clusters are headed Person, Personal, Interpersonal and Negotiable. Note the consistent high ranking of motivators that likewise fall within the person, personal and interpersonal clusters respectively. Conversely note the relative low ranking of the negotiable cluster.

What does this rather uniform finding have to contribute to contemporary curriculum design?

First recognize that there are many forces at play in the responses given. This is not an exact science. Rather, studies of motives leading to job satisfaction could more accurately be classified as trend analysis.

Because of the overwhelmingly consistent trends across study populations of leisure service personnel it seems appropriate to boldly state that leisure services curriculum should:

*Be person centered; that is, stress the psychological/ sociological disciplines
*Emphasize Human and Interpersonal Relations
*Be introspective with regard to who the individual student is, his/her temperament, values, style, coping ability, etc.
*Go back to the basic roots which exemplified the beginning of the recreation movement. This relates to the early emphasis as a ocially conscious, human service movement seeking to serve the majority by trying to improve the human condition and create a higher quality/better life. These are our roots.
*Emphasize a socially stable, recreatively active and well balanced student. This is based on the premise that socially inept students with a narrowly confined range of leisure interests cannot serve as a viable model for diverse leisure service delivery.

Post Script: A Concern

Directly related to curriculum review and planning, Professor John Hultsman of Purdue University querried members of the American Academy for Parks and Recreation Administration in 1985. Fifty-two percent (37 of 71) of the academy responded to establish what Hultsman (1985) termed "...recurring themes rather than a trend toward a single, general consensus." This seems most appropriate since the field is so broad and diverse, the future so hard to quantify and the make-up of the Academy heterogenous with academicians and practicing professionals included.

The concern raised by me upon review of the document entitled "Future Directions for Recreation, Park and Leisure Services: Some Comments from the Academy," was the total lack of commitment in the area of interpersonal relations and understanding of oneself. No where in the report were such items reported. Rather, emphasis was placed in broad disciplines the preponderance of which represent technical knowledge rather than interpersonal skills. Random quotes below show a sampling of the insight, direction and future perspective of priority qualities necessary for future leisure leaders under the side heading "student skills."

"The most prevalent opinion expressed relative to the skills expected of students upon graduation centered on business acumen..."

"Taxation, law, personnel, economics and fiscal management were all cited as important areas of knowledge."
"...Need for graduates to be computer literate. ...(more) proficient in public relations, marketing and forcasting recreation demand..."

These statements skirt the issue of developing a student CONFIDENT as well as COMPETENT; a student steeped in a clearer understanding of ones own self esteem and sensitive to this dimension in others. The research in motivation/productivity clearly delineates a hierarchy from person - to personnel - to interpersonal - to negotiable. This hierarchy suggests to the author that the basis of job satisfaction and inherently, success of our students in the job market is for them to have a clearer understanding of themselves and how they relate to others.

The above statement about human and interpersonal relations generally is not disputed. It appears to be rather logical and straight forward. However in the absence of such acknowledgement by members of our Academy, one can only deduce: (A) that it is so basic as to not require elaboration; (B) we are truly caught up in content rather than personal qualities — a real hazard in my opinion; or (C) the nature of the way the Hultsman questions were worded produced the slanted response.

This article related to both data based findings and a strong appeal to re-think our basic methodology of curriculum construction serves not to point fingers, accuse colleagues of short-sightedness or inversly have all the answers. It is a strong plea to re-think the basic way of framing curriculum to be viable in a dynamic yet changing leisure service labor force. Professionals both in higher education and out practicing in diverse job settings are admonished to:

Stand up and be seen,
Speak up and be heard, and
Set thoughts down in print to be reacted to.

One such triad of educators/practitioners is Drs. Benest, Foley and Welton of Southern California; authors of the recent book, Organizing Leisure and Human Services (1984). Calling themselves "radicals" and suggesting a radical movement back to the "radical leaders of our roots," they cite among others such leaders as Joseph Lee, Jacob Riis, Luther Gulick and Jane Addams. The authors are depicted as visionaries, great thinkers, people with a social conscious — in short, humanists promoting the improvement of the human condition. They state "the issues may be different today, but promoting human development is still the intellectual centerpiece of the Recreation Movement." Riding the tide of growth, expansion and an increased standard of living — both as individuals and within institutions serving individuals we subscribed to the Capitalistic concepts that bigger-is-better, and the win-lose model of program service delivery and in the words of the authors "...for 40 years this lost vision dominated the American Recreation Movement ... until the mid-60s" when the Gray and Greban Future Perspectives thought pieces re-subscribed to the human values, endorsed in this article as central to curriculum development.

The Benest, et al. book goes into radical strategies to get us back on track. Among several "strategies needed to survive" the authors list the following. They are committed to the creation of once-again a viable recreation movement like the one from which our current profession was shaped. They call for a redirection with emphasis on the person, his/her qualities and the ability of these individuals to be sensitive to their needs and with this quality they extend this advocacy-related role to the special needs of those to be served. They ask where they should start and among others give these strategies:

"*Develop a mission that truly puts human concerns first. The primary goal of recreation is human development.

*Respond to the social forces of the time ...

*Develop a new kind of interactive leadership — one that is radical, humanistic and programmatic ...

*Replace public relations approaches with people organizing, and community empowerment..." (Benest, p. 38)

What is necessary for the whole recreation movement is absolutely essential for the curricula which is envisioned to produce those who will lead this profession into the twenty-first century. Curriculum development must re-direct its attention to the person in personnel, the feelings in program facilitation, the great source of strength and reinforcement when there is success which comes from people recognizing accomplishments of people. This brings us back to the key questions I feel we must address -- from which curriculum should be developed:

Who and what are the qualities of leaders of excellence in leisure services?

What are the specific settings, working conditions and requirements of these leaders?

Are they happy, productive and successful in their jobs?, and

What variables are there that lead to job satisfaction, sustained productivity and advancement?

These form the foundation from which curricular patterns should be fostered. The model in Figure 5 should be the guide for curriculum development with the motives translated into competencies and units within courses.

Parable of the Ladder:

Once upon a time there was a curriculum planner — he had ready and willing faculty to assist and a body of young, eager and enthusiastic students who wanted to be guided, directed and sheparded through a sequentially sound series of courses toward a degree in parks, recreation, leisure and cultural services. The planner called on both faculty and students to address and change the current curriculum. They were given complete license to review and reconstruct the most applicable curriculum to meet the job market of the mid-80's within the fiscal, human, and physical resources available.

The curriculum planner added one perspective to give the diverse population of willing "assistant curriculum planners" a common focus. He said, "let's look at the curriculum we build together as a ladder in that it has various rungs (classes), followed in a logical and sequential order from lower more basic content/classes to the progressively more difficult and higher level rungs (content). The assistant planners were greatful and adapted the ladder model to their discussion. They became totally involved in curriculum construction. They wrestled with such important considerations as:
*basic general content
*survey content to get a broad overview
*compliamentary disciplinary courses in the time honored disciplines (e.g. history, math, English literature, the sciences) and the historically supported technique courses (e.g. English composition and speech)
*a common core of classes deemed necessary for each pledged student major and many other areas.

They took all these considerations and others into account as they constructed the Contemporary Leisure Studies ladder. The planners looked very closely at content, units, and prerequisites; class by class as though they were literally as necessary as is each rung on a real ladder. They even established specific competencies within each of the classes. It was very thorough as far as content goes. Given the best thinking of educators and practicing professionals it seemed that not only were the courses exposing the students to all "the right stuff" but it captured the imagination of futurists with all the trinkets, gadgets and dreams. I am speaking, of course, of such items as computers, software of all sizes, shapes and promises, creative business accounting spread sheets; even opportunities for students to elect tourist facility placements from dream lodges to Love Boat. What more could students want?

The curriculum ladder had lots of appeal and promised the teaching of technical skills learned "behind the keyboard" or "on-board." Skill development took center stage in the development of the course offerings. There was no doubt if one were to look at the "curriculum ladder" as it stood alone one would have to congratulate the curriculum planner and his associates. It looked as if it were a masterpiece standing tall, and sequentially developed step by step in a most logical way.

"Now for the real test," said the curriculum planner. "Let's lean this up and test it. Ladders are inclined to be tested. Let's see where does it fit?"

Now comes the embarassing situation. The planner and his assistants were so engrossed in the "gloss" and the trends that they lost track of the bigger/broader perspective; their true product was the individual student and his/her personal growth and development. What was markedly lacking was the contemporary thinking involving forces, trends, megatrends, and such considerations as what has influenced previous students who are now leisure leaders of excellence. This student growth is addressed in the management literature in terms of job satisfaction to leisure workers and better yet, sustained satisfaction resulting in continued productivity and advancement. "Could it be, we've developed a fine ladder," says the planner, "but we've lost sight of what wall it's to be placed on?"

This parable is not fable but possibly fact. The wall is one represented by gadgets, "gizmos" and glitter. Others have labeled it materialism with recognition of the grown-up toys and playthings such as computer aided graphics or weight lifting equipment selling slimness and strength. Another representation of this wall is that of technology -- the service and its products which focuses on "new things." The material aspects of technology far outstrip our ability as individuals to adjust, use, and adopt both to the things and ourselves.

This is a plea to consider leaning the curriculum ladder on the wall of Human Beings, Human Understanding, Human Growth and Development where the Self -- the students, can be the central focus with curriculum content presented, giving at least equal credence to an understanding of self and what motivates one to learn more, set high goals, adjust to the money demands our complex society places upon us. The Human Wall (vs) the Technology Wall focuses our attention on basic fundamental beliefs in the inherent worth of each individual. Recreation curricula of the historic past gave us this underpinning. The Recreation Movement was steeped in phrases just as applicable today as at the turn of the century. The key words and thoughts include the

*inherent worth (and resultant dignity) of each individual
*inevitable potential for each person to grow, develop and change throughout life
*growth in each of the dimensions of one's life (e.g. physical, mental, social/emotional and spiritual
*balance between one's independence and interdependence with others and the environment.

There are others, but the point is basic beliefs, fundamental tennents stand the test of time. These beliefs form the foundation of the human wall to rest upon.

Application of Current Research

Note the similarity with the fundamental statements illustrated above and the priority items expressed as motivators by practicing professionals in the leisure services profession (Figures 4 and 5). The point to be made from the findings of motivation discrepancy/congruancy research is:

> There is a preponderance of evidence by recreation leaders that they are motivated in their work predominantly by motivational factors, not by hygiene factors. That is, they are fed by the opportunity for achievement and recognition. They want to be seen as quality individuals working in a quality environment with a chance to grow/advance. These leaders ranked inter-personal relationships (e.g. shared decisions, being part of a team, getting along with peers and supervisors, [illegible] much higher than the hygiene factors (e.g. good wages, raises/benefits, and benefit packages).

The challenge for curriculum planners is to interpret this heavy emphasis, consistently in favor of self over things, of opportunity over organizational security, of personal attitude over altitude (high ranking positions), of personal satisfaction over security, and of cooperation over comfort. These values can be reinforced through a curriculum emphasizing the human and interpersonal aspects of knowledge over the specific skills and technologically driven fads and fancies of the times. The goal is to develop a sound curriculum ladder which is a means of introducing students sequentially to content which is relevent and will lead to a happy and productive person in one's whole life. It is the contention of this article that for lasting value the ladder should be associated more heavily (e.g. leaning against) the human wall as opposed to the technology wall. It is a matter of emphasis not exclusion.

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A FIVE YEAR FOLLOW-UP REVIEW OF THE HARBORVIEW MEDICAL CENTER REHABILITATION SERVICE COMMUNITY INTEGRATION PROGRAM (CIP)

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Abstract

In 1980 the therapeutic recreation staff on the rehabilitation unit at Harborview Medical Center, Seattle, WA initiated the Community Integration Program (CIP) in an attempt to standardize their efforts in assisting rehabilitation clients in the community integration process. The purpose of this review was to ascertain if available records could provide the necessary information and data to validate the success of the CIP over this five year period of time.

Introduction

The recreation therapy staff at Harborview Medical Center, Seattle, Washington, in cooperation with the Occupational, Physical, and Speech Therapy Departments, developed the Community Integration Program (CIP) for newly disabled spinal injury patients. The program was initiated after it was determined that a great number of rehabilitation patients were unable to effectively apply the skills they had learned in the hospital setting to the demands of daily community living. In addition, rehabilitation patients readmitted to the hospital expressed similar frustrations with their inability to manage the demands of daily community life and their leisure pursuits. Patients were hesitant to participate in activities that were new for fear of failure. Thus the CIP was instituted to respond to the patients' needs.

The purpose of the CIP was to provide opportunities and experiences for the newly disabled spinal injury patient that promote the development and application of new knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary for successful participation in daily community living. Successful participation was defined in terms of the independence level attained by the individual patient. Each patient was expected to attain a personal level of independent function necessary for meeting the particular demands of their everyday life. Attention was given not only to developing independent wheelchair skills, but also to developing independent thinking and problem solving abilities. Emphasis was placed on solving problems in the present; however, the intent was to prompt patients to anticipate future experiences and potential problem situations that would demand clear thinking and organizational abilities. Patients were also encouraged to advance beyond the basic needs of daily living. They were encouraged to pursue leisure interests that might require further skill development, and increase challenge and ability in activities out of the everyday routine.

The CIP teaching manual included 18 modules. One module was written for each community experience. The 18 modules were grouped in five main categories; cultural activity, physical activity, transportation, community living skills and personal choice (see Figure 1). These categories were chosen to represent the major areas of patient needs and interest. Individual modules were labelled according to the category number and corresponding module letter (i.e., Library is 1A). All the modules follow a standard presentation format which consists of two sections.

The first section is the Pre-trial Planning Guide (see Figure 2). This Guide lists a series of suggested questions to be considered by the patient as the outing is planned. These questions may be added to or deleted as the therapist judges necessary. The questions focus primarily on pre-arrangements, transportation, accessibility, emergencies, and equipment.

The second section of the module format is the Field Trial Evaluation form (see Figure 3). This form was designed for therapist use in charting and reporting procedures. Specific behavioral objectives were written to suit each individual community outing. These objectives defined the criteria to be used for evaluation. If a patient succeeded independently in meeting the behavioral objective as stated, their performance was considered successful. If the patient was unable to complete the outing independently, and required therapist assistance, either verbally or physically, then the number of cues given were recorded. The patient was considered unable to complete the task if they so indicated or the therapist so judged.

Research

Client records from 1980-85 were reviewed with particular attention being given to completed CIP forms and their related progress notes. It was hoped that completed CIP forms would provide raw data that could be organized so that a statistical analysis could be performed. Unfortunately the review of the CIP forms readily indicated that staff had not provided complete or consistent information on the great majority of the forms thereby making only the most basic of descriptive analysis possible. Even then, there were only twenty-four (24) forms with enough data recorded to allow any comparisons.

The review also indicated few, if any, common denominators among clients other than their basic disability classification. Because of this, the original 24 clients were subdivided into two generic disability groups, spinal cord injured (10) and brain damaged (14) for the purposes of this report.

Interestingly, a review of related progress notes and demographic information indicated that the spinal cord clients were, generally, treated early in the program (1980-82) while the brain damaged clients were treated more recently (1982-85). This follows a pattern that has been recognized by the Harborview staff regarding the types of clients being treated over the past five years. During the early 1980's the majority of their clients were moderate to severely involved spinal cord injuries. For the past couple of years the majority of clients have been severely brain damaged. Medical and trauma care advances in the treatment of both the spinal cord injured and the severely brain damaged have led to this change in basic client populations.

Since the CIP was originally developed for use with the spinal cord injured client and was later implemented with the brain damaged, a review of these two disability groups was deemed important.

Findings

Tables 1 and 2 (see Tables 1 and 2) present the data and findings as related to the two disability groups. It is interesting to note that in the majority of cases (8 of 10) spinal cord clients achieved lower scores on the field-trials than in their pre-test. Just the opposite was the case with brain damaged clients where the majority (13 of 14) achieved higher scores on the field-trial than on the pre-test. An initial reaction to this information would lead one to conclude that the CIP is more effective with the brain damaged client than with the spinal cord injured. A close review of related progress notes shows however that the therapeutic recreation staff felt that the CIP was just as helpful with spinal cord injured clients as with the brain damaged clients.

In trying to resolve this seeming inconsistency an interesting observation was made. It appears that success in obtaining community integration skills, at least in the early stages of the rehabilitation process, is obtained on different functional levels for the two population groups. With the spinal cord client the first major community integration problem is with physical accessibility. With the brain damaged client the first major community integration problem is related to cognition and cognative reasoning ability.

Because of these need differences, the CIP was used primarily to assist the spinal cord injured client in overcoming personal physical limitations and physical barriers in the community. In the majority of cases it was found that even though the client did well on the pre-test situation in the more protective treatment center when faced with the actual situation in the community during the field-trial the client was not successful, thus the negative scores.

In the case of the brain damaged client the CIP was used more as a training and cognative learning tool. In this situation the pre-test appeared to provide a positive learning experience that could be successfully replicated during the community based field-trial, also explaining the more positive scores. An interesting sidelight to this, however, is the fact that therapeutic recreation staff reported that from their experience the CIP was a more accurate indicator of community integration skill development with the spinal cord injured rather than the brain damaged clients. The primary reason given for this is that even though the brain damaged client seemed to gain the necessary cognitative skills through the CIP experience the increased reduction in judgement skills that typically results for this type of injury caused most clients great difficulty, especially in potentially high stress situations like in a crowded bus or grocery store. The spinal cord injured client, not usually having judgement difficulties, simply used each of the CIP sessions as an additional learning time and gained improvement with each learning experience.

Table 3 (see Table 3) lists each of the seventeen (17) possible CIP activity items and indicates which of these items was used by the therapeutic recreation staff with each population group. It was found that six of the seventeen items were used with a majority of both client groups. It would appear that these six items are the most effective in teaching the necessary community integrations skills for these clients. It is interesting to note that these six items include a representative of each of the four general activity areas used in the CIP. Cultural Activities are represented by movies/theater and restaurant, Physical Activities by swimming, Transportation Activities by city bus and Community Living Activities by downtown and grocery store. While other activity items were used these six appeared to be the most effective in the CIP process.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Even though objective data is extremely limited, subjective information strongly supports the continued use and refinement of the Community Integration Program. It is evident that the CIP is used by the therapeutic recreation staff as a consistent means of teaching and evaluating the community integration skills with their rehabilitation clients. It appears that use of the six identified activity items provide sufficient information and training for successful community integration skills for spinal cord injured and brain damaged clients.

It is recommended that the CIP be revised with the revision being centered around the six activity items being most consistently implemented with the client populations. It is also recommended that the therapeutic recreation staff develop a research component to this revision so that consistent, accurate data can be collected to further evaluate and refine the CIP. It would appear that some type of outside funding (grant) should be sought so that the necessary additional staff resources and program additions can be managed by the staff and rehabilitation unit.

Lastly, it is also strongly recommended that the therapeutic recreation staff continue to use the CIP in the total rehabilitation process with its clients. Care should be given in keeping accurate data, making accurate progress notes and in using the CIP program both as an effective teaching as well as evaluation tool.

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TABLE 1

Differences Between Pre-Test Percentage Scores and Field-Trial Percentage Scores on the Community Integration Program - SPINAL CORD INJURED

Client #	High Diff.	Low Diff.	Ave. Diff.	Total Items Reported (N=14)	CIP Items Reported by Name
S-1	-2	-18	-7.7	7	Movies, Restaurant, Swimming, Airport, City Bus, Downtown, Grocery Store
S-2	-12	-32	-25.8	4	Sporting Event, Swimming, Airport, Grocery Store
S-3	-27	-46	-34.8	5	Restaurant, Swimming, City Bus, Laundromat, Grocery Store
S-4	+17	-7	-0.6	5	Movies, Restaurant, City Bus, Grocery Store, Shopping Mall
S-5	0	-13	-5.2	5	Swimming, City Bus, Laundromat, Downtown, Grocery Store
S-6	-8	-40	-22	5	Restaurant, Wheelchair Sport, Airport, Downtown, Grocery Store
S-7	-4	-28	-15.8	9	Movies, Restaurant, Swimming, Airport, Bus Station, Bank, Laundromat, Downtown, Grocery Store
S-8	+5	-15	-4.7	7	Restaurant, City Bus, Bank, Laundromat, Downtown, Grocery Store, Shopping Mall
S-9	+10	-8	+1.6	9	Movies, Restaurant, Swimming, City Bus, Train Station, Personal Travel, Downtown, Grocery Store, Shopping Mall
S-10	+15	-5	+10	4	Swimming, Personal Travel, Grocery Store, Shopping Mall

TABLE 2

Differences Between Pre-Test Percentage Scores and Field-Trial Percentage Scores on the Community Integration Program - BRAIN DAMAGED

Client #	High Diff.	Low Diff.	Ave. Diff.	Total Items Reported (N=14)	CIP Items Reported by Name
B-1	+7	-10	+3.4	7	Movies, Restaurant, Swimming, Bus Station, Laundromat, Grocery Store
B-2	+7	+4	+5.1	7	Sporting Event, Restaurant, Swimming, City Bus, Laundromat, Downtown, Grocery Store
B-3	+20	+6	+12.8	6	Movies, Restaurant, Swimming, City Bus, Downtown, Shopping Mall
B-4	+29	+4	+13.8	5	Sporting Event, Swimming, City Bus, Downtown, Grocery Store
B-5	+50	+14	+29.8	6	Sporting Event, Restaurant, Swimming, City Bus, Downtown, Grocery Store
B-6	+39	+12	+21.8	5	Movies, Swimming, City Bus, Laundromat, Grocery Store
B-7	+20	-17	+6.2	9	Movies, Sporting Event, Restaurant, Swimming, Wheelchair Sport, City Bus, Downtown, Grocery Store, Shopping Mall
B-8	+10	-13	+0.25	4	Movies, Swimming, City Bus, Grocery Store
3-9	+10	-10	+1.7	7	Movies, Restaurant, Bus Station, Bank, Downtown, Grocery Store, Shopping Mall
B-10	+30	-15	+3.4	5	Restaurant, City Bus, Downtown, Grocery Store, Shopping Mall
B-11	+15	+6	+10.0	4	Sporting Event, Bus Station, Downtown, Grocery Store
B-12	+20	+6	+11.3	6	Sporting Event, Restaurant, Swimming, City Bus, Grocery Store, Shopping Mall
B-13	+16	-41	-9.6	5	Movies, Swimming, Bus Station, Downtown, Grocery Store
B-14	+29	+14	+16.0	5	Restaurant, Swimming, 3us Station, Jowntown, Grocery Store

TABLE 3
Cumulative Frequency of Each CIP Activity Item

Activity Item	Spinal Cord	Brain Damaged
Libary	0	0
Movies *	5	7
Sporting Events	1	6
Restaurant *	7	9
Swimming *	7	11
Wheelchair Sports	1	1
Airport	5	1
City Bus *	6	9
Bus Station	1	4
Train Station	1	0
Taxi	0	0
Personal Travel	2	1
Bank	2	1
Laundromat	4	4
Downtown *	7	10
Grocery Store *	10	13
Shopping Mal'.	3	5

*Those items rated/used most frequently

FIGURE 1
A Community Integration Program
Module Outline

1. Cultural Activity — 2
   - A. Library
   - B. Theater, Movies
   - C. Sporting Event
   - D. Restaurant
2. Physical Activity — 1 (Only one activity is required; however, it is suggested that the patient attend the activity at least twice.)
   - A. Swimming
   - B. Wheelchair Sports
3. Transportation — 2
   - A. Airport
   - B. City Bus
   - C. Bus Station
   - D. Train Station
   - E. Taxi
   - F. Personal Travel
4. Community Living Skills — 2
   - A. Bank
   - B. Laundromat
   - C. Downtown (required of all patients)
   - D. Grocery Store
   - E. Shopping Mall
5. Personal Choice
   - A. ________
   - B. ________

   (It is suggested that two leisure activities be chosen for this category.)

FIGURE 2
A Community Integration Program
(C) 1980, Armstrong, Ford, Fowler, O'Shaughnessy, Acsell
Pre-trial Planning Guide

This module may apply to the following community setting:

A. Bank
B. Laundromat
C. Downtown
* D. Grocery Store
E. Shopping Mall

****

Therapist Statement.

You are making your weekly grocery list, and plan to shop this afternoon. Consider the following questions while planning your outing.

****

A. Pre-arrangements
1. Which grocery story will you choose? Why?
2. Will you plan to take a grocery list with you?
3. How will you plan to pay for your groceries?

B. Transportation
1. How will you get to and from the store?
2. How will you transfer in and out of the vehicle?
3. Where is the store located?
4. Where will you park?

C. Accessibility
1. Where will you enter the store?
2. Is the store accessible?
3. How will you get in and out through turnstile entrances?
4. How will you reach items on the top shelves?
5. How will you reach items from the cold storage section?
6. How will you carry your groceries while shopping?
7. How will you check out, if the cashier's aisle is too narrow for your wheelchair?
8. How will you carry the grocery bags to your car, bus or taxi?

D. Emergency
1. As you are checking out, you learn that you do not have enough money for all that you've chosen. What will you do?
2. What will you do if you have to cath yourself or go to the bathroom while you are shopping?

E. Equipment
1. What medical equipment will you require for your trip?
2. What special equipment or supplies will you take to make your shopping more convenient?

Field Trial
Module 4D
Grocery Store

FIGURE 3
A Community Integration Program

Report of Observed Field Trial

Objectives	Successful	# of cues	Unable	Not Applicable
A. Pre-arrangements				
1. Upon being asked to plan a trip to the grocery store, the patient will demonstrate the ability to plan ahead for the trip by:				
a. choosing a convenient store,				
b. identifying its location,				
c. making a grocery list,				
d. considering budget limitations,				
e. planning for assistance if needed.				
B. Transportation				
1. Upon learning the address and location of the grocery store, the patient will demonstrate the ability to arrange transportation to the grocery store as characterized by:				
a. considering all transportation alternatives and choosing one,				
b. obtaining fare and schedule information if needed,				
c. making a reservation if needed,				
d. considering parking arrangements if needed.				

Patient Name ____________________ Therapist ______________ Total # of cues ______________

Field Trial
Module 4D
Grocery Store

FIGURE 3 (contd.)
A Community Integration Program

Report of Observed Field Trial
(contd.)

Objectives	Successful	# of cues	Unable	Not Applicable
C. Accessibility				
1. Once the grocery store is chosen by the patient, the patient will demonstrate the ability to prove the building accessible by:				
a. choosing the best entrance and entering the store,				
b. managing entrance and exit through turnstiles,				
c. determining the best way to reach foods in the cold storage section and on the upper shelves,				
d. choosing the best alternatives for carrying groceries,				
e. managing the check out procedure.				

****

Objectives	Successful	# of cues	Unable	Not Applicable
D. Emergency				
1. When presented with a hypothetical emergency situation, the patient will demonstrate the ability to respond appropriately by:				
a. showing awareness of and considering the options available,				
b. choosing the safest and most reasonable option with regard to the situation at hand.				

Patient Name ________________ Therapist ____________ Total # of cues ____________
Diagnosis __________ Chart Note ________ Reported __________
Date of Birth ________________ Place of Field Trial ____________________

MEASURING SATISFACTION OF NATIONAL OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP SCHOOL (NOLS) STUDENTS

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Abstract

Satisfaction of students taking courses from the National Outdoor Leadership School (NOLS) is examined. Results indicate that students are highly satisfied with their NOLS experience, but differences do occur across types of courses, and by expectations for the course. These findings are similar to other studies of recreation satisfaction.

Introduction

The National Outdoor Leadership School (NOLS), a private nonprofit organization, was established in 1965 as a program designed to teach skills and knowledge necessary to be comfortable in the wilderness. Thus, NOLS combines the tradition of a programmed outdoor recreation experience with specific educational objectives. Specifically, NOLS has four major educational objectives: leadership development, outdoor skills, minimum impact conservation techniques, and expedition dynamics. These objectives are reached through a variety of courses which run two to three weeks in length. NOLS offers ten different courses ranging from an introductory wilderness course to specific skill oriented courses such as mountaineering or sea kayaking. NOLS, headquartered in Lander, Wyoming near the Wind River Mountains has branch schools in Alaska, Washington, Baja California, and Africa.

Consistent with its educational mission, NOLS has made an effort to evaluate its program and course offerings. The Department of Recreation and Leisure at the University of Utah has participated in that effort by assisting in the design of the evaluation instruments and analysis of the data. In this paper we report on some preliminary attempts to measure the satisfaction level of NOLS students.

Measures of satisfaction are important to providers of outdoor recreation because they aid in monitoring the quality of services provided. In addition, participant satisfaction has been a central variable in the study of outdoor recreation behavior. Visitor satisfaction is typically regarded as a goal of recreation resource management agencies such as the U.S. Forest Service. While satisfaction seems an obvious variable to study it has proved difficult to measure adequately (Propst & Lime, 1982).

Ironically, one of the problems has been the consistently high levels of satisfaction reported (Ditton, Graefe, & Fedler, 1981). Given that recreation activities are generally freely chosen to provide satisfaction it may not be surprising to find high levels of satisfaction. However, the high levels do not appear to vary with individual characteristics, expectations, or activities (Schreyer & Roggenbuck, 1978). For example, the predominant finding from studies examining carrying capacity is that the correlation between satisfaction and actual use level is weak to non-existent (Propst & Lime, 1982). This has proved frustrating to resource managers who wish to provide an empirical basis for establishing such things as a carrying capacity.

Many explanations have been offered for why satisfaction measurement has failed to provide the anticipated insights (Propst & Lime, 1982). In particular, Manning and Ciali (1980) suggested that recreationists may use a variety of psychological mechanisms to maintain high levels of satisfaction. For example, participants may shift their perceptions of the experience away from the original goals to new goals that reflect what was actually attained. Manning and Ciali (1980) note this is essentially a cognitive dissonance explanation to account for high satisfaction levels.

A need exists to examine satisfaction in a context where participation is more of a "one-time-only" experience for most people. Most satisfaction research has been directed at participants in more informal and unstructured recreation engagements than a NOLS course. In the context of a highly structured course, cognitive dissonance theory would suggest that participants might be more inclined to express dissatisfaction should the course not live up to expectations.

Methods

Pre and post course questionnaires were administered to students in selected courses located in Wyoming and Alaska. The responses to the questionnaires were made on optical scan sheets to minimize error in data tabulation. The original answer sheet used on the pre-course survey was given back to the student for the post-course questionnaire to further facilitate data processing. The student was only identified by birthdate so that responses would remain anonymous. Each course had a maximum of 17 students enrolled.

Administration of the questionnaire was performed by NOLS personnel at both branch schools. The pre-course questionnaire was given to the students the morning of their first day. The post-course was given upon return to the branch school from their excursion, usually three weeks later. Questionnaires used in the present analysis are from courses beginning between June 3, and August 28, 1985. Twenty courses were selected by NOLS for study. The types of courses studied were: wilderness, mountaineering, Prince William Sound (Alaska sea Kayak), natural history, fishing, and outdoor educators. A total of 282 useable questionnaires were completed.

The pre-course survey addressed demographic characteristics (age, gender, occupation, residence, education); reasons for attending NOLS; physical conditioning; and other questions such as knowledge of the NOLS program. The post-course survey asked the student to evaluate their satisfaction with the course in a number of ways. Students rated the instructors, equipment, and food on a nine point Likert scale. In a similar manner the students rated the course on a number of general satisfaction items. Finally students were asked to indicate whether they learned more or less than they expected on different course subjects.

Results

Responses to nine statements were considered for developing a measure of satisfaction. These statements were presented in a 9-point Likert format anchored from (1) Strongly Disagree to (9) Strongly Agree. Included were statements of overall satisfaction with the course, of satisfaction with each of the three instructors, that they would recommend NOLS to friends, that they would take another NOLS course, of the helpfulness of the course in their career, and of the helpfulness of course in their life. From a preliminary factor analysis, it was evident that the two statements regarding helpfulness of the course represented a different evaluation of satisfaction than the other items. Therefore, two satisfaction scales were developed, one labeled course satisfaction the other course helpfulness. Further, and somewhat surprisingly, the item on taking another course did not appear to fit the course satisfaction factor and was dropped from the analysis.

Reliability statistics (item-total correlations and Cronbach's Alpha) were calculated for both summated rating scales and are given in Table 1. The item means for the course satisfaction scale were quite high—all just under or at 8.0. The standard deviations were relatively low (from 1.39 to 2.02) but comparable to other satisfaction scales (Ditton, et al., 1981). The reliability for the course satisfaction scale was 0.82 which is generally higher than other satisfaction scales reported in the literature (Schomaker & Knopf, 1982; Ditton, et al., 1981). Even if the weakest item in the scale was deleted (the rating of the patrol leader had the lowest item-total correlation) the reliability would still be 0.81. For the helpfulness scale the item means were somewhat lower (6.54 and 7.25) and the standard deviations larger (2.35 and 2.19 respectively). The reliability for the two item helpfulness scale was 0.73.

Satisfaction and helpfulness scores were compared across individual characteristics. Scores did not vary by gender, occupation, or education level. This appears consistent with other studies that find satisfaction not to vary with individual characteristics (Ditton, et al., 1981). However, scores on both satisfaction and helpfulness varied by physical conditioning as reported in Table 2. Those who either already participated in regular exercise or undertook additional exercise reported being more satisfied with their NOLS course and rated the NOLS experience as more helpful to themselves. Further, while there was no difference in satisfaction and helpfulness with previous NOLS experience, those that intended to apply NOLS toward and outdoor education career reported the course to be more helpful ($F[1,209] = 7.05; p < .009$).

Satisfaction and helpfulness scores were also compared across courses (see Table 3). Because the samples from the fishing and natural history courses were small they were not included in the comparison. By both indicators, respondents from the Prince William Sound sea Kayak course were least satisfied. Those taking the outdoor educators course and the wilderness course were generally the most satisfied. Course satisfaction was highest for the wilderness course and helpfulness the highest for the outdoor education course. The outdoor education course is more career oriented thus, the finding of high ratings for helpfulness would be expected.

Satisfaction with the course and helpfulness of the NOLS experiences were compared to expectations about course content. No relationships were found between

TABLE 1

Scale Item Composition and Reliability for Course Satisfaction and Course Helpfulness

Scale	Item Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-Total Correlation	Cronbachs Alpha
Course Satisfaction				
I was satisfied with my NOLS course	7.87	1.39	0.612	
I was satisfied with the course leader	7.90	1.95	0.647	
I would recommend NOLS to my friends	7.96	2.02	0.616	
I was satisfied with the course instructor	7.92	1.84	0.680	
I was satisfied with the patrol leader	8.00	1.84	0.543	
Mean Course Satisfaction	7.93	1.37	--	0.82
Helpful to Career/Life				
The NOLS experience was helpful to my career	6.54	2.35	0.576	
The NOLS experience was helpful to my life	7.25	2.19	0.576	
Mean Career/Life Satisfaction	6.72	2.0		0.73

helpfulness and expectations however, satisfaction appears to be somewhat related to expectations of course content (see Table 4). Participants were asked to rate a number of skill areas as to whether they learned more than expected, learned what they expected, or learned less than expected. Most of the skill areas were specific to a particular course but two, first aid and mapreading, applied to all courses considered in this study. Satisfaction was higher for those that reported learning more than expected for both first aid and mapreading.

TABLE 2

Comparison of Satisfaction Scores by Conditioning

Conditioning	Mean Scale on Score	
	Course[1] Satisfaction	Course[2] Helpfulness
No Exercise	7.5	6.1
Additional Exercise	8.1	7.3
Already Exercise	8.0	6.7
TOTAL	7.9	6.8

[1]F-value (2,210)=3.10; p. ∠.047

[2]F-value (2,209)=4.87; p.∠ .009

TABLE 3

Comparison of Scale Scores by Course Type

Course Type	Course[1] Satisfaction	Course[2] Helpfulness
Wilderness	8.3	7.2
Mountaineering	7.9	6.5
Prince Wm. Sound	7.6	6.3
Outdoor Education	8.0	7.9
TOTAL	7.9	6.7

[1]F-value (3,212 df)=2.318; p.∠ .071

[2]F-value (3,211 df)=6.71; p. ∠ .000

TABLE 4

Comparison of Satisfaction With Course by Expectations

Amount Expect To Learn	Mean Satisfaction	
	First Aid[1]	Mapreading[2]
Expected to Learn More	7.7 (n=75)	7.5 (n=35)
Learned What Expected	8.0 (n=80)	7.9 (n=117)
Learned More Than Expected	8.3 (n=50)	8.2 (n=62)
TOTAL	8.0 (n=211)	7.9 (n=214)

[1]F-value (2,208)=4.06; p. ∠ .019

[2]F-value (2,211)=3.19; p. ∠ .043

Discussion

While some differences in satisfaction could be explained, it is important to note that overall satisfaction levels are quite high. In this regard there seems to be little difference between the present study and past studies that have looked at recreation satisfaction. NOLS students did not rate satisfaction lower than observed in studies of informal participation in outdoor recreation.

The observation of two dimensions of evaluation for NOLS experiences (course satisfaction and helpfulness) is consistent with the two primary dimensions of the NOLS program. Course satisfaction appears to tap the general recreational quality of the course. The helpfulness addresses the educational objectives. This interpretation appears inconsistent with the finding that course satisfaction varies with expectations about the educational content of the course while course helpfulness does not.

Another difference between the two measures is that ratings of helpfulness are more variable and generally lower than ratings of satisfaction. This is most likely a reflection of individual circumstances. Some students may place more emphasis on the educational objectives, others the recreational objectives. This seems to be the case for those students taking the outdoor educators course. They reported the highest level of helpfulness of any of the courses were near the average for course satisfaction.

As in other studies we observed no association between reported satisfaction and individual characteristics. However, some of the strongest differences were between courses. A number of explanations are possible. Courses are run in differant environments and students may encounter different weather. According to NOLS, sometimes weather precludes mountaineering classes from getting to do as much climbing as is planned. Still, some of the satisfaction differences may indicate minor problems with some courses and may warrant further study. Satisfaction and helpfulnss ratings for the sea kayaking course in Prince William Sound were lower than other courses. This may be due to a bad run of weather or it may indicate some problems that NOLS may be able to remedy. A majority of the kayakers indicated that they expected to learn more about fishing for example. While fishing may or may not be an important component of the kayak course students apparently expect some instruction. Perhaps some clarification in the course catalog is necessary.

In the future, examining expectations may prove to be the most valuable. Satisfaction was shown to be related to what students expected to learn. Comparisons of skills that are common to all courses could be augmented by examining the relationship between satisfaction and expectations within course types/ Clearly, unmet expectations about climbing would have a greater impact on satisfaction for a climbing course than would unmet expectations about first aid or mapreading. Such analysis might prove useful but will have to wait for a time when more data is available.

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PROMOTING HEALTH IN THE PARKS AND RECREATION SETTING

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Abstract

Basic concepts of health and health education are typically consistent with those of recreation. An understanding of historical and current perspectives on health can give the recreation professional valuable insights into the complementary benefits provided to constituents by appropriately planned and executed recreational activities and programs.

Introduction

Recreational programs and services by public, private, and commercial agencies have increased proportionately to the amount of leisure time available to the citizens of our communities. In order for such programs and services to function effectively, the leaders who serve therein must be professionally trained individuals capable and willing to carry out a host of varied responsibilities (Edgington and Ford, 1985).

As one trained and practiced in the field of Health Education, this author would not presume to instruct those above-mentioned professionals in Leisure Education. However, since "the responsibilities of individuals providing [recreational] leadership are varied and diverse" (Edgington and Ford, 1985), it stands to reason that a brief explanation of health and Health Education might provide some insights which would be valuable to those in Recreation and to their constituents.

Historical and Contemporary Views of Health

It is a well-known fact that health and well-being have been matters of concern since the beginning of time; the antiquity of disease is established beyond dispute (Wood, 1979). Various cultures and societies have attempted to describe health or departures therefrom in contexts they thought feasible; their value systems are often reflected in their views about health. Historical accounts, for example, contain such theories and explanations of health and disease as are described below:

The Humoral Theory

Illness is caused by an imbalance among the four basic body fluids (humors) of blood, black bile, yellow bile, and phlegm. This theory was popular among the ancient Greeks, who assumed that predispositions to various health conditions were humorally controlled.

The Demonic Theory

Disease is caused from intrusion by an evil spirit. The "patient" so possessed may be/have been subjected to trephining (creating a hole in the skull as a means of escape for the demon) along with a variety of herbal concoctions, chants, and incantations to hasten the process of recovery.

The Religious Theory

Disease or ill health is present because of punishment by the Lord. In this case, one's "number is up," and efforts to treat the problem should be dissuaded.

It is interesting to note that various individuals or groups sustain these beliefs today. Examples for illustration include women who have borne deformed children as a result of their own sins (as they are sometimes told), and victims of sexually transmissable diseases such as herpes or AIDS.

The Miasmatic Theory

"Miasma" refers to noxious odors, usually from decaying organic materials. It has been thought that inhaling such musty, swampy odors causes disease. Malaria, which literally means "bad air," is one such disease. Of course, we now know that a specific organism causes malaria, but one can easily understand the early supposition that breathing miasmatic air (before the connection was made regarding the mosquito carrier) must have been a causative factor.

The Magnetic Theory

As purported by Anton Mesmer, celestial bodies such as the sun, moon, and stars/planets attracted the body's interstitial fluid in a manner similar to their gravitational effect on the oceanic tides. For relief, magnets of various strengths and sizes were aligned by the body in an effort to bring the fluids back into their normal state or position.

Few concrete data are available on the extent of illness experienced by preliterate peoples (Wood, 1979), but many other theories such as the Christian Science theory, the psychosomatic and somatopsychic theories, the valuable germ theory (through which processes of thinking and discovery immunizations and antibiotics have become available), and Hans Selye's famous stress theory have contributed to our modern concept of health and disease. A description of this so-called ecologic theory may be helpful in explaining how professionals in the parks and recreation setting can aid in the promotion of health among their participants.

Contemporary Concepts of Health

"Since the eighteenth century, there has been a dramatic improvement in the health and life-span of Americans" (Lee et al, 1984). Much of that improvement, and many of our health beliefs today have stemmed or evolved from ideas and theories like those described above. For the most part, until 1947, health was seen from a simplistic, unidimensional perspective; most scholars saw it primarily from a physical point of view (Galli, 1978). In that year, however, the World Health Organization (WHO) formulated this description of health as "a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity" (Constitution, 1947).

Although this definition has obvious drawbacks and limitations, it has served for almost 40 years as a springboard for discussion and further delineation of health concepts. Learning to live healthfully is, for the majority of us, an abstract process (Bedworth and Bedworth, 1978), and it seems that students and scholars as well as the general populace of today demand greater specificity than that given by the WHO. We need a more pragmatic, real-life definition with more easily understandable and less lofty concepts.

Yet it would be foolish to discount what the WHO has so thoughtfully provided. What we can do, and have done, is to expand and build on what has been outlined by that organization.

Howard Hoyman described, in addition to physical, mental, and social well-being, a spiritual dimension of health. He also pointed out that "human health and disease are codetermined by the ecologic-epidemiologic interaction of genetic, environmental, experiential, and individual factors" (Hoyman, 1975). He and others have asserted that the phenomenon we call "health" has, among many more, the following characteristics:

- it is dynamic, not static;
- it is individual;
- it is relative;
- it is measurable, both quantitatively and qualitatively;
- it is improvable;
- it implies personal responsibility, i.e., the individual can do more for the improvement of health and quality of life than any doctor, hospital, drug, or exotic medical device (U.S. Dept. of HEW, 1979).

Health Education

"Traditionally, health services have focused upon curative health care...[and] usually, few people enter health-care systems for preventive purposes" (Miller, 1984). That, however, is changing. The field of health education has evolved over the last several decades as an applied social science concerned with the behavioral and lifestyle aspects of human disease. "Since its inception, health educators have recognized the important link between lifestyle and health status" (Bates and Winder, 1984).

The scope and purpose of health education are emphasized in the definition which states that it is "any combination of learning experiences designed to facilitate [i.e., predispose, reinforce, or enable] voluntary adaptations of behavior conducive to health" (Green et al, 1980). One of the most fundamental challenges faced by health educators is "to find appropriate ways to influence individual behaviors and lifestyles in a pluralistic, democratic society" (Bates and Winder, 1984). Realizing the myriad of factors that influence health status, "health educators seek to improve health through education of the individual, the medical and public health community, and society at large" (Greene and Simons-Morton, 1984). In order to do so, and due to advances in technology and communication, the profession of Health Education is in a "constant state of growth and change" (Breckon et al, 1985).

The Parks and Recreation Setting

The parks and recreation setting is only one of many in which ideals and concepts of good health can be demonstrated and encouraged. Part of the "growth and change" mentioned above simply involves networking and increasing awareness and understanding between the two professions of Recreation and Health Education.

"There seems to be a growing appreciation in America of the paramount importance of buoyant personal health. This new awareness is evident in many ways..." (Russell, 1981), not the least of which is the increased activity in leisure time pursuits spoken of by Edgington and Ford. Not only are people exercising more, they seem to also be seeking alternatives to the routine of arise, work, eat, watch TV, sleep, arise, work, eat.... Many seem to somehow know that their mental, social, and spiritual dimensions need attention, too.

All of these health dimensions can be addressed in one way or another through the parks and recreation setting. And although the specialist in leisure activities is not and should not be expected to function as a health educator, it should not be overlooked that such a person may have a tremendous impact on the health and well-being of the constituency being served.

"Many programs in health education target change at the individual level, where desired outcome is for individuals to make particular changes in behavior. However, social environmental conditions have been identified as predisposing or as protective factors in the illness process, and these must be addressed more directly by systems-level interventions. Although policy has been one arena in which systems-level solutions have increasingly been targeted, another important action arena is that of enhancing the function of local community systems" (Thomas et al, 1985).

Recreational programs and facilities, it seems, are important parts of local community systems, and promotion of health is or can be a subtle yet extremely beneficial component of the activities sponsored or carried out there. Health education programs are often not labeled as such, even though the methods and activities involved may be very consistent with the philosophies of Health Education and other closely-related disciplines (Green et al, 1980).

Does this imply that leisure or recreation specialists need to delineate instructional objectives for health outcomes? Not at all. Health benefits of personal and interpersonal recreational activities may be realized through what Eisner called expressive objectives, in which participants engage in those activities without any outcomes specified (Gage and Berliner, 1979). The health results of recreational activities may be in the form of cardiovascular and/or respiratory endurance, muscular strength and/or flexibility, increased feelings of self worth, greater ability to interact socially, heightened sense of inner peace, etc.

Participation in recreational pursuits may simply help people to gain the motivation to do what most of know already, viz., "to live healthfully: to apply some of the principles of health science coupled with some understanding of how [our] mind, body, and emotions interrelate; to set some health goals for [ourselves], and then to follow though..." (Edlin and Golanty, 1985). Through a basic understanding of and appreciation for these fundamental concepts of health and health education, professionals in the parks and recreation setting may provide incentive and encouragement for individuals to become healthier and happier as they extend the quantity as well as improve the quality of their lives.

This really is better than miasma and demons!

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YOUTH RECREATION LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AND THE JOB TRAINING PARTNERSHIP ACT

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Abstract

The federal government has for many years provided support for employment, training and remedial services for the structurally unemployed. Included in this support have been programs designed specifically to address youth unemployment. A major federal program supporting youth job training and employment, the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA), now requires that a competency-based work program be developed and implemented. Recreation agencies intending to establish or continue youth leadership programs must design the work experience to meet these new requirements. This article details the JTPA program requirements and identifies performance standards for youth recreation leaders.

Introduction

For many years, recreation agencies have utilized federal job programs to supplement office staff, complete special projects, and provide maintenance during select periods of the year. But due to the temporary nature of funding, the qualifications of available workers, and the need to provide constant supervision and direction, many departments elected not to participate in these work programs.

Recently, due to the enactment of the 1980 Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA), and the resultant changes in the law, the federal job programs have become a more viable resource for public and private recreation systems. Organized around job performance and a competency-based system, participating adults and youth are measured in their progress towarda achieving work capabilities in four competency areas: pre-employment skills, work maturity skills, academic skills, and job specific skills.

Recreation agencies (52) in Colorado through the Colorado Rural Recreation Directors Project (CRRDP) have effectively employed the JTPA competency program to provide leadership in the development of rural community recreation systems. Through the recruitment, training, and supervision of eligible youth, recreation programs are planned and implemented specific to the needs of rural Colorado residents.

The competency program is designed to ensure that participants are directed in their work experience by supervising agency personnel, that significant and meaningful work is attempted, and that the work experience aids in the development of basic and work related knowledge and skills. Funding can be accessed for both training and work site supervision of the youth based upon a three-year developmental process of community-based recreation program implementation.

Background: Federal Job Programs

During the 1960s, authorization was given through the Manpower Development and Training Act and the Economic Opportunity Act for "government intervention in the labor market processes on behalf of the poor and the disadvantaged."[1] With the enactment of the Comprehensive Employment Training Act (CETA) in 1973, responsibility for the administration of these categorical programs was transferred from the federal to state and local governments. Local units of government administering this block grant were to provide "employment, training, and remedial services primarily for the structurally unemployed—those who, because of inadequate education, lack of skills, or other structural impediments, are at a disadvantage in the labor market."[2]

Between 1974 and 1978, the role of CETA shifted. Under the Emergency Jobs and Unemployment Assistance Act (1974), public [illegible] employment became a major component. This was further strengthened by Title VI in 1976 and Title II-D in 1978 under which funds ($10.2 billion) were appropriated to support over 750,000 public service jobs. "By 1978, CETA no longer was primarily a program for the structurally unemployed; public service job programs accounted for over 60 percent of all CETA expenditures."[3] Due to inadequate numbers of economically disadvantaged being served, support of activities normally sponsored by local resources, and allegations of public service employment abuses, the reauthorization act of 1978 reaffirmed the original goal of CETA: "...to provide job training and employment opportunities for economically disadvantaged, unemployed, and underemployed persons."[4]

Youth Employment Programs

A variety of Federal job programs designed to address the problem of youth unemployment have been instituted. Stromsdorfer (1980) identified and compared six such programs established in the Federal Youth Act of 1977. These programs include: Young Adult Conservation Corps, Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Project, Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Project, Youth Employment and Training Program, Job Corp, and Summer Youth Employment Program.

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[1] Mirengoff, Rindler, Greenspan, Seablom, and Black, The New CETA: Effect on public service employment programs, National Academy Press, Washington, D.C. (1980) p. 1.

[2] Ibid., p. 2.

[3] Ibid., p. 2.

[4] Ibid., p. 3.

The Young Adult Conservation Corps was established to provide work experience to young persons on conservation projects on federal and non-federal lands. Eligibility included youth ages 16-23 from all socio-economic groups with the intended outcome being experience in various occupational skills. The Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Project program targeted economically disadvantaged dropout prone youth 16-19 who had not yet graduated from high school. The designed impact was high school graduation or its equivalent leading to further education or post-program employment. The Youth Community Conservation and Improvement Project was established to serve out-of-school, unemployed youth, 16-19, and focused on job training and skill development. The expected outcome of this program was unsubsidized employment due to work experience and community service.

Low-income youth facing severe employment problems have been served by the Youth Employment and Training Program. This program features numerous support services such as GED certification, work experience in various settings, and subsidized transportation for eligible youth 16-21. Unsubsidized, suitable employment is again the intended outcome. Job Corp also offers support services for eligible enrollees ages 14-21 and allows for up to two years enrollment. Vocational education is a major component of the Job Corp with the expected outcome being the improvement of future employment and educational opportunities.

The Summer Youth Employment Program addresses both current income needs of youth and on-the-job training for a limited time period. This program was preceeded by the Summer Program for Employment of Disadvantaged Youth but also focused on reducing social tensions. Youth, ages 14-21 who are economically disadvantaged were eligible for this program with the expected outcome being the development of occupational potential.

Job Training Partnership Act

In October, 1980, Title II-A, Training Services for the Disadvantaged, of the Job Training Parnership Act (JTPA) became law. The Job Training Partnership Act authorizes a variety of approaches to expand the involvement of private industry and to increase private sector employment and training opportunities for eligible participants.[5] Under JTPA, the legislative intent is clearly a partnership at the local level designed to meet the needs of program participants and local employers.[6]

The recently enacted Job Training Partnership Act provides a new program and delivery system to train economically disadvantaged person for permanent employment. Consistent with the intent of Congress, the Act provides maximum local authority and flexibility at the state and local levels in the design and administration of programs. Furthermore, the Congress has recognized that as an investment in human capital, job training must be measured against criteria to help determine whether the investment has been productive. As a result, the Secretary of Labor has been directed to establish performance standards for JTPA-eligible youth. Eligibility for youth participation in JTPA is based upon age (14-21) and economic status.[7]

Competency Program for Youth Employment

The Job Training Partnership Act program (Title IIA) for disadvantaged youth requires that competencies be established in order to meet program criterion. This program is based upon the belief that job training and employment should provide "employment-related" competencies that can enhance future employability of the participants. Regional training authorities who administer the youth JTPA contracts are committed to placing youth in work experiences that promote the development of useful work behavior patterns and basic skills. This means that agencies wishing to participate in this program must provide significant work experience and increase their involvement in actual youth training and enrichment as outlined by the employment-based competency program.

This new emphasis on "quality" within work experience can only be met by agencies that are committed to providing work situations that promote employment skill development. No longer acceptable are work situations where youths perform menial work tasks such as mowing lawns, cleaning buildings, or painting fences. Priority for youth placement is now predicated on the variety of work skills available within the job experience. In addition, more active involvement is required on the part of the worksite supervisor to direct the youths in activities that provide on-the-job training as well as education and evaluation in employment skills that enhance their ability to secure and retain employment.

In order to participate in the youth employment program, an agency must develop and implement a competency-based job program that focuses on the four employment-related skill areas. The competencies not only help insure the committment to overall employment training but also provide a consistent evaluative tool for youth and supervisor to follow. The four areas include: pre-employment skills, work maturity skills, academic skills, and job specific skills.

The Pre-Employment Skills help youths identify and demonstrate the skills and knowledge necessary to seek and obtain employment. This may include correctly completing forms and applications, completion of a job-seeking portfolio, or learning to conduct themselves appropriately during a job interview. Work Maturity Skills provide guidelines to follow in order to practice good work behavior skills. This competency area includes punctuality, cooperation with co-workers, personal motivation, and acceptance of constructive criticism.

Development of reading, writing, and math skills normally required to enter and retain employment is a part of the Academic Skills competency area. Participants enrolled in this competency have been identified as either needing improvement or needing special programs designed to provide support for the completion of an approved course of study. Access to remedial classes or qualified instructors in order to attain these skills should be provided when possible.

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[5] Program fact sheet: The Job Training Partnership Act, Office of Rural Job Training, Denver. CO, (1984) p. 2.

[6] An Introduction to Competency-Based employment and Training Programming for Youth Under the Job Training Partnership Act, (1983) p. 1.

[7] Ibid., p. 3.

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It is the responsibility of the local training counselor to secure appropriate academic support when necessary although the worksite supervisor is expected to assist participants when the skills involve specific job tasks.

The last competency area, Job Specific Skills, include those competencies that are learned and developed while actually working in a job. Through the work experience, participants begin to understand and demonstrate skills necessary to maintain employment in a specific occupation: tools of the trade, technical vocabulary, and training components provided within the worksite.

Enrollment in Competency Areas

It is not necessary or required that every youth be enrolled in every competency activity. Enrollment in a competency should be based upon the recognition that a deficiency exists that may prevent or diminish employability. The decision to enroll or not enroll an applicant in a competency activity is part of the initial assessment and personal interview conducted by a job training counselor. Through the application process the counselor can identify deficiencies in any of the competency areas prior to job placement.

Following the assessment of the participating youths' needs and interests, the counselor, along with the worksite supervisor, determines the appropriate competency activities and incorporates those activities into the overall employment plan. Regular evaluations are conducted throughout the work experience by both the worksite supervisor and the training counselor based upon the overall growth in each of the enrolled competency areas. To determine progress, each competency area is broken into benchmarks which define a specific skill (i.e. employee maintains punctuality), which in turn is further defined by assigning a measureable action indicator (i.e. regularly reports to work on time, informs supervisor in case of tardiness or absence) within each benchmark.

Worksite Supervision

There is little doubt that an important element in this employment partnership lies in the ability of the worksite supervisor to educate, train, and motivate youth participants throughout the work experience. The supervisor must plan and conduct training experiences within the workplace, provide understanding and patience as the youth experiences the work setting, and serve as a role model in demonstrating appropriate work behavior. The competency program gives this task a clear set of boundaries within which to develop work experience for youth that truely enhances employability. The competency areas also provide a structured evaluation system by which to measure improvement--one that is clear to both the participating youth and the worksite supervisor.

Youth Recreation Leadership Development--A Case Study

For the past five years, youth recreation leaders have participated in the establishment and maintenance of summer recreation programs in rural communities throughout Colorado. As a result of a successful partnership between JTPA and the Colorado Rural Recreation Directors Project (CRRDP), over 100 youth from 52 rural Colorado communities have received training and work experience in recreation leadership. These youth, under supervision of a university recreation student (worksite supervisor), provide a necessary and valued service to residents of those communities.

The youth recreation leader program is well-suited to the aims and objectives of the JTPA Title II program. Due to the diverse nature of job responsibilities found in establishing and maintaining a rural community recreation system, participating youths encounter a variety of experiences leading to skills applicable in any work environment. As a result of the implementation of the job performance (competency) program, the CRRDP staff is able to clearly document the personal and professional growth of each youth recreation leader.

At the beginning of each summer, the approximately 40 youth recreation leaders and their worksite supervisors attend a four-day training program on the campus of the University of Colorado in Boulder. The training focuses on developing skills in safety, program planning, communication, decision making, leadership, self-confidence and select recreation activities. It is during this training that each youth begins to understand the responsibilities of a good employee and to establish a relationship with his/her supervisor. Upon completing the training, the youths return to their communities with a clearer understanding of recreation development and with a renewed sense of confidence about their personal leadership skills.

Each of the four competency areas provides a format within which training and experience in recreation leadership can enhance overall future employability. Again, due to the diversity of responsibilities, and the necessity that the youths immediately assume a leadership role, tremendous growth occurs in a very short time. The competency areas, with examples for each from the Rural Recreation Project, are detailed below to show how recreation agencies can format the youth work experience to comply with the JTPA competency program.

Pre-Employment Skills

Each youth recreation leader completes both a JTPA job application form and a recreation job-specific application form. In addition, each youth participates in a formal job interview conducted prior to hiring and a series of mock interviews throughout the summer designed to improve the individual's presentation. Audio-visual training materials on conducting a job search are provided through JTPA vendors, and each youth develops a resume, cover letter, and portfolio of the summer job experience to present to future employers.

Work Maturity Skills

In this competency area, each youth participates in a weekly evaluation interview with the worksite supervisor as well as being given the opportunity to work closely in recreation programming with other community members. Daily personalized work schedules provide each youth with the opportunity to organize work patterns and to show job initiative. The variety of tasks specific to recreation programming allows for the youths to demonstrate punctuality and a committment to the work experience. Day to day, on-the-job experience, aids in reinforcing employee expectations.

Academic Skills

Four areas of academic skills which are most emphasized in the CRRDP are reading, math, communication, and writing. Reading skills are reinforced by providing recreation activity manuals for the youth, through proofreading news releases and public information documents, and by following written directions from the supervisor. Math skills are developed through working with program budgets, controlling petty cash funds, handling participant registration fees, projecting progrem revenue, developing participant-instructor ratios, following specifications when laying out fields and courts, and determing payroll.

Communication skills are developed through conducting a community recreation survey, daily contact with the public, leading recreation activites, working with recreation support staff, presenting oral and written reports to the town board, interpreting agency purpose to the general public, and through conducting fund-raising efforts with the business community. Writing skills are improved through such activites as preparing radio, television, and newspaper articles, by developing posters and program flyers, writing program descriptions for brochures, and through basic office communications.

Job Skills

Skills which are specific to the recreation leader position and which fit this competency category include: distribution and collection of recreation surveys, conducting program evaluations, securing human, physical, and financial resources for program development, registering participants, planning and implementing programs, and providing a safe environment within which to recreate.

Summary

A partnership between the Job Training Partnership Act and local recreation agencies to provide youth recreation leader training and work experience, clearly fits the design and intent of the Training Services for the Disadvantaged program. Throughout the recreation work experience, youths can be presented the opportunity to develop, organize, and implement a variety of recreation activities. They can be encouraged to develop employment characteristics that apply to any work environment while at the same time provide an important service to the community. The use of the recently developed competency program focusing on pre-employment, work maturity, academic, and job specific skills, assists in the establishment and evaluation of a meaningful work experience for each participating youth.

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FITNESS IN AMERICA:
PROGRAMMING FOR EFFECTIVENESS

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One of the things I enjoy doing on the weekends, when I have a little more time to spend in recreational activities, is to get up early Saturday morning, go for a long, easy run, return home to have a leisurely breakfast with my family and then to sit down in the family room with my twin sons, ages 3½, and watch cartoons for an hour. I'm a cartoon devotee and have been for a long time. I am amazed at the change in cartooning format and subject matter selection that has occurred from the 1950s and 60s when I was young, to the 1980s. Mickey isn't offending Minnie anymore, Mighty Mouse has blown his last mission, and Popeye isn't gulping down that nasty green vegetable in order to gain the strength he will need to defeat Bluto and win the hand of Olive Oil. (Why he ever wanted her hand was beyond understanding, even for my non-discriminating cartoon taste.)

Presently, the cartoons I watch with my children are primarily filled with men and women of incredible strength and who have physiques to match that strength. One of my personal favorites is the hero, He-Man, star of Masters of the Universe. He is a Clark Kent/Superman character except that he has a physique that makes Arnold Schwarzenegger look like the skinny kid on the beach. Fortunately, He-Man is very kind and has found that with a little bit of magic and a lot of muscle great things can be accomplished. This image of success is repeated time and again in the cartoon that I see weekly. Let me share a few titles of some of the cartoons that have similar characterizations. In addition to He-Man and Masters of the Universe there is Mr. T, G.I. Joe, Super Heroes and Super Friends, Thundercats, Incredible Hulk, and now, professional wrestlers.

All of these cartoons feature men and women of both enormous muscular dimensions and strength. The most unique cartoon heroes, however, happen to be a mutation of man-made machines and man himself resulting in the incredibly powerful Gobots. These man-machines are invincible and are the ultimate in power.

But I think the most interesting change that has occurred in the make-believe world of children are the toys that have been developed as a result of the new cartoons or as modifications in traditional toys. The most obvious transformation that has transpired recently is with the Barbie doll. Barbie used to wait passively in her dream-house for slender Ken to come by to play house. Now she is Workout Barbie with her own workout center of weights, ropes and exercycle. And she no longer waits for Ken, she goes to his house or they get together to work out and talk about her latest business successes. Her theme song captures the essence of this YUPPY girl, "We girls can do anything, right, Barbie?"

Accompanying this exciting change in Barbie is a shift in many of the toys currently being marketed. For young girls, there is a huge variety from which to choose. Some of the more interesting to me, in addition to Workout Barbie, are the Princess of Power series and the Get-in-Shape Girl workout with cassette tapes and accompanying implements. The boys have a similar array of options with the most popular toys being those that are patterned after the cartoon series of powerful heroes.

The image that is presented both directly and subliminally to the children watching TV is that success today is linked to three areas: the physical prowess of a Carl Lewis, the good looks of a Tom Selleck and the savvy of a Michael J. Fox.

Unfortunately, the research that has been conducted with the youth of the nation exploring their health status and fitness levels (Gilliam, 1977; Ross, 1985; Siegel, 1984) has shown that a dichotomy exists between the powerful images on TV and what is actually happening on the other side of that square lens. American adolescents are fatter, weaker and have more cardiovascular risk factors than their counterparts of just ten years ago. And the sad part of this problem is that American youth don't look like they are going to change their indolent lifestyles quickly. Fortunately for some they come from good homes, good educational institutions and good communities where appropriate examples are provided along with an accurate knowledge base and a variety of opportunities for involvement in exciting and challenging fitness and recreational programs.

The key to success, however, probably lies with effective programming in those three areas, namely the home, schools and community. It takes a combination of all three components of a child's environment in order to be effective about long term changes in lifestyle.

Even though children are bombarded with images of physical excellence on television, that doesn't necessarily mean that positive changes are imminent. And adults are no exception. Half-hour television workout programs are everywhere, fitness videos are best-sellers and hundreds of fitness books are available in grocery stores as well as in bookstores. Jane Fonda is better known for her "burns" than for her acting, Joan Collins is the mature woman's answer to the middle age crisis and Sylvester Stallone is changing the expectations for and images of all men in America.

Parallel with children's cartoon programming changes are the changes in adult fashions and fashionable looks that have occurred over the past several years. Twiggy had the hot look of the 1960s and all models had to look like they possessed the body of a twelve-year-old prepubescent female. Now the women are looking at female body builders like Gladys Portugues and former Ms. Olympia, Rachel McLish. Even a current popular Wendy's advertisement features a young woman who is obviously an athlete that does strength training. Nowadays, the successful woman conditions herself alongside the successful male. And men are now, more than ever, bombarded with images of physically fit males. The emphasis on looking fit is everywhere. It's in big business, in acting, in the assembly line, in government; the list is endless!

This tremendous media blitz is supported by an all-out campaign of health professionals to get people taking charge of their lives and improving their quality of life. The advertising people have obviously capitalized on what is appealing to society in general and therefore sells products. Everyone wants to "look good" and so products are packaged to be appealing to that image. New products have been designed and developed to meet this burgeoning fitness market.

Professionals in the health area, on the other hand, have the goal of selling people on the idea of improving their fitness levels and health status by involving themselves in activities which improve health. Fortunately, these activities tend to improve appearance at the same time.

The current tenor of the country then, is extremely beneficial for people in the fitness business. Never before has so much visual and informational support been available to assist the experts in establishing effective fitness programs. Hopefully, we won't get complacent and think that images and knowledge alone will bring about the desired changes in the lives of our community members. Cartoons haven't changed the fitness levels of our youth; neither do all American women look like Jane Fonda. It should be obvious then that there are more approaches that need to be incorporated into our fitness programming in order to be effective.

The three cooperative groups identified earlier that should work together most closely to ensure effective fitness programming are the family, schools and community. Programs should be developed with these groups interacting during not only the planning but even more critically during implementation of the programs. Without broad-based support, too many would-be-fitness-enthusiasts fall away and never recover.

Following are some ideas that might be helpful in effective fitness programming.

Effective Fitness Programming

The first step is to decide what is effective programming and what is not. To help us decide, we need to look at what the research has identified as successful programming. A review of the current literature indicates that most participants in leisure-time physical activity fall into distinct categories. In his comprehensive review of current research regarding fitness participation, Lupton (Lupton, 1984) found that only 36 percent of all those surveyed in America, as reported by several different researchers (that is, they had planned exercise sessions), exercised regularly, several times per week. The researchers found that regular exercisers tended to be

- Younger as opposed to older persons
- Men more than women
- Whites as opposed to nonwhites
- Persons with higher levels of education and income
- Individuals living in suburban as opposed to urban or rural/small town communities
- People residing in the West; the lowest participation rates were shown by persons from the South
- Single parents more frequently than other parents with children.

These categories should be useful in targeting potentially successful and nonsuccessful groups. This information can then be helpful in deciding where to concentrate efforts and which groups need special attention.

Another bit of helpful information is the preference of activities. For adults, Lupton found the order of preference to be walking, swimming, bicycling, bowling, calisthenics, hiking, softball, basketball, running/jogging, and tennis. In his study of recreation preference of college students, Stewart found that team sports were the most popular activities for these college-age students (Stewart, 1985). Softball, volleyball, basketball, racquetball, soccer, swimming and flag football all rated at the top of the preference list. It is clear that activity preferences change over the years for most Americans. This indicates that activity selection should be age-specific and recreators should respond to the interests of their communities.

In addition to activity preferences, Lupton also observed some interesting tendencies of the exercisers. There seemed to be the following tendencies:

- Participation in walking and golf did not decline with age
- Males tended to participate in more vigorous forms of exercise than did females
- Nonwhites participated in jogging more often than whites
- For many exercises or sports, college and high school graduates participated three to five times more often than grade school graduates
- Participation in walking and jogging was consistent across income levels
- Few regional differences were found
- Clerical and sales/white collar workers were a little less likely to participate in athletic activities than blue collar or executive/professionals.

They also found that most people started exercise programs for health and fitness reasons but later stayed involved with exercise for enjoyment and the perception of benefits they thought they had accrued.

Some additional prompters for increasing the likelihood of participation included a physician's recommendation, nicer weather, a four-day work week, and greater availability of facilities.

Other considerations for effective programming deal with the mechanics of implementation. There exist several models for fitness programming and they all seem to have similar recommendations (Cooper, 1984; Misner, 1984). Some of the more important aspects of fitness programming that should be considered are listed below. All programs should:

1) Be convenient
2) Include educational information
3) Be individualized
4) Provide goal orientation with realistic expectations
5) Be supervised where necessary
6) Limit potential for injury
7) Promote social interaction with family and friends
8) Provide feedback to participants
9) Insure fun along with progress
10) Have planned motivational techniques.

Of all ten items, motivation is probably the most critical factor (Shephard, 1985; Goodrick, 1984). Keeping participants motivated can be the most challenging as well as the most exciting part of the program. This is where creativity and enthusiasm can play a critical role in keeping people exercising. Let's consider some of the common complaints or reasons for dropping out and the possible antidotes to those complaints.

Complaint	Antidote
No time	Seminars on time management
Too pressured	Seminars on role of exercise on reducing stress
Too tired	Seminars on role of exercise in reducing weight, increasing energy-producing capacity of the body and in feeling better
Not fun	Provide rewards that are symbolic, material or

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	psychological
Embarrassed	Individualize each program and assign participants to appropriate groups
Hate to exercise alone	Involve family, friends, co-workers, etc.

There is no sure way to guarantee compliance. It is one of the major problems with all fitness programs and will continue to be so. However, some success can come by patiently providing an assortment of reasons and reinforcers as mentioned above.

Leadership will be the most important element in the implementation and direction of the program. Experts committed to the fitness concept should be recruited and then allowed to function. Their primary role should be one of providing the educational materials and coordinating fitness programs among the various community groups. In addition, they should set an example of the benefits of the program. In other words they should look the part. Even the recreation specialists should present a positive image of fitness and health. Being converted to fitness is critical in order for the leaders of the program to be effective.

The rest of this report will address some of the ways that communities and particularly recreation specialists can be involved in effective fitness programming.

A Community Fitness or Wellness Council

The University of Nebraska at Omaha has been involved with a community wellness council for four years (Flynn, 1984). This council has provided a forum for business, community, educational and health professional leaders to combine resources and expertise in order to provide the city of Omaha numerous outreach programs.

The Omaha council sought involvement and support from the entire community and the success of the program is evident in the number of fitness programs in local businesses, the availability of facilities for general use, the educational programs produced by fitness experts, increased job opportunities for fitness experts and the involvement of community members in the program.

The goal of the council is to reach out into the community, to be a moving force in improving wellness and fitness levels of the community. Outreach is the key. Some of the programs include:

1) Fitness classes for the elderly at community centers
2) Health series for cable television
3) Aquatics and movement program for handicapped
4) Fitness evaluation and prescription center
5) Summer fitness program for children
6) Public school coronary heart disease prevention program
7) Quarterly newsletter
8) Educational seminars on stress management, smoking cessation, etc.
9) Television and radio promotion of fitness activities.

A community council like the one in Omaha could be an enormous boon to any community, regardless of size. I would recommend that the membership of such a council should include but not be limited to 1) city council representative, 2) representatives from major businesses, 3) fitness experts from a nearby university, college or high school, 4) religious leaders, 5) representatives from health agencies, 6) city recreation specialists, and 7) medical advisor.

This committee should then begin to evaluate and identify resources, establish goals and begin implementation. Creativity, commitment and enthusiasm will be the keys that ensure success of the council.

City Recreation Departments

While reviewing the literature for this paper, I found an interesting article which reported that the successfulness of American youth taking physical fitness tests was shown to be related not only to greater number of activities in which the youth participated but also the greater the variety of community organizations through which they have participated (Gilbert, 1985). Recreation specialists would be wise to incorporate this simple recommendation by returning to their departments determined to be more creative in the variety of offerings they provide to their community.

Oftentimes lack of facilities restricts program offerings. However, there are directions that can be taken to help improve the facilities of any community and therefore the variety of program offerings. Some of the facilities that might be considered being built or used are identified by Caldwell in his article on City Parks (Caldwell, 1985). Additional ideas might include:

- Community and school recreation centers
- Fitness trails in parks or around schools
- Bike and jogging paths along highways, in park areas or around schools
- Fitness testing centers at municipal pools, recreation centers, universities, public schools, etc.
- Free blood pressure screening at health departments, fire stations, senior citizen centers, etc.
- School gymnasiums and pools for cardiac rehabilitation as well as other fitness classes.

Some exciting ideas for fitness programs for families that recreation specialists can be involved in are identified in the October, 1984 issue of the Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance. In that issue Neal reports that families need to establish life patterns early that will help to reinforce and emphasize family togetherness (Neal, 1984). Because Americans place a higher value on a good family life rather than on material possessions, it becomes extremely important that recreational and particularly fitness offerings be designed to include activities for the family. With that emphasis in mind, facilities should also accomodate the needs of the family.

Activities that might be included in fitness planning are things like family fun runs, family cycling tows, family softball tournaments, spouse volleyball and softball teams, family nature hikes, family dances, a He-Man Day with clinics on strength training and a He-Man look-alike contest, family Olympics, family fitness awards, hours set aside for family swim, ... and the list goes on. This familial emphasis on activities can help not only with family closeness but it can help establish fitness and activity patterns early in young children. It can also provide parents a chance to begin a fitness program and then function as the impetus to help them stay with the fitness program. Providing fitness opportunities becomes even more challenging when facilities are limited and communities small. Long reports some interesting adaptations that can be incorporated in small, rural communities (Long, 1984). His ideas are exciting and could be very helpful in fitness programming.

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Educational Cooperation

One of the most important steps to include in the fitness program planning is to cooperate with the educational institutions of the community. This cooperative effort will help to provide the recreation specialist with not only facilities but more importantly experts in the area of fitness. The educators will have the information that will be important to give participants in order to help them understand the principles of fitness and the appropriate procedures to follow. These educators can also continue to disseminate educational material to the community members who are participating in fitness programs as well as to non-participants. The information will then serve as a reinforcer to participants and as a reminder and encourager to the non-participants.

Cooperation between recreation departments and educators will help the recreation specialist to plan program offerings around the school physical education curriculum. These offerings can reinforce what is being taught in the classroom and also provide opportunities of involvement in the recreational program to students when their interest in a given activity is at a peak.

Summary

Effective fitness programming is not a single offering or condition. It is an evolving process that has an unlimited number of possibilities. It will only be effective when the leaders of the program set a personal example of the benefits in addition to cooperating with families, educators and recreators of the community. As He-Man says, "By the power of Gray Skull, I have the power." Recreators have the power, too, to change lives and make fitness an exciting reality in their communities.

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ADVENTURE GAMES: SAFE RISK RECREATION

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to present a conceptual overview of Adventure Games as a safe means of adventure simulation in parks and recreation programming. It is intended only as an introduction to some of the concepts and approaches which may be useful in the implementation of an acceptable alternative to "real" Risk Recreation activities. Three methods of adventure simulation will be reviewed: Adventure Games, Initiative Activities, and Softwar. No comprehensive resource is herewith intended. The accompanying reference list will serve as an extended resource for those interested in programming such activities on their own.

Introduction

A dilemma facing many Parks and Recreation programmers in recent years has been whether or not to include some form of Risk Recreation activity in their offerings. There has been a growing interest in such activities along with increasing awareness of their attractions and drawing power, but also of their potential for significant liability claims.

Would-be risk recreation providers are often torn between a desire (and perhaps even a demand) to offer such opportunities, and the multitude of constraints they face regarding the provision of high adventure/risk recreation types of activities.

Intertwined with this entire quandary is an underlying confusion about these activities. Few recreation professionals understand the relationships between the various approaches to meeting a clientele's interests in outdoor adventure/risk recreation kinds of experiences. In view of this difficulty; discriminating among such closely related concepts and activities, some initial guidelines may help foster electicism.

Adventure

Generically, adventure seems to refer to the excitement of outdoor undertakings of a less than everyday nature. Adventure is a fun form of anxiety. Adventure is typically perceived to be found only in remote and exotic locales of the world like the Himalayas, Timbuktu, or the River of No Return. However, many opportunities for adventure can be found much closer to home. Local trails, cliffs, streams, and hills can be the highest adventure most of us will ever desire. These places are where most people find their outdoor adventures.

Outdoor Adventure Activities

Outdoor Adventure Activities (or Risk Recreation programming) usually connote such activities as:

- Rock Climbing and Rappelling
- Backpacking and Mountain Hiking
- River Running (rafting)
- Ski Mountaineering
- White-water Canoeing/Kayaking
- Caving (spelunking)
- Parasailing
- and others

Nevertheless, even these closer-to-home adventures generally require substantial investments of time, resources, and skills. It is possible though, with a minimum of such investments, to SIMULATE ADVENTURE, in the gym, on the play ground, or in the park by using appropriate strategies. Three useful approaches to Adventure Simulation are: 1) Adventure Games, 2) Initiative Activities, and 3) the New Games concept of SoftWar.

Adventure Games

An adventure game is one which poses an inherent element of Physical (or psychological, or social) risk. Physical risk in adventure games is ameliorated by careful orientation of all participants, use of spotters, playing on a cushioned surface or other similar precautions. Adventure games are occasionally "scarey" to the uninitiated, but most such activities are more "high fun" than they are "high risk". Often, the only risk is a social one, "making a fool" of oneself through the silly rituals and fantasies associated with many adventure games is about as "risky" as most games get.

These simple criteria are met by many good adventure games. Among the best are "Islands", "Yurt Circle", "Ball Crawl", "Balance Broom", "People Pass", "People Pyramids", "Trust Falls", "Blind Polygon", "Glute Walk", and "Python Pentathlon". (See References #6, 7, 13, 14, 15, 17 and 18.) In most adventure games little or no equipment is required and any number of participants can be accomodated.

Initiative Activities

An Initiative Activity is a fabricated problem (the "Scenario"), presented to a group of 5 to 15 people. The problem and/or objectives are clearly stated, but the means and solutions are left to the initiative and ingenuity of the group. Initiatives are used frequently for the purpose of developing "esprit 'd corps", a sense of cohesiveness within the members of a group. Initiatives can be relatively straightforward such as the classic "12 foot Wall" problem, or highly-convoluted challenges with many possible solutions.

Good examples of Initiative Activities include "Grizzly Bear", "Four Pointer", the classic "Electric Fence", "All Aboard", "Traffic Jam", "Nitro Crossing", and many others. (See References #3, 8, 13, 14, 15, and 18.) Many Initiative activities do require specific though usually minimal items of equipment and/or have particular environmental constraints.

SoftWar

SoftWar was conceived by Stewart Brand, one of the New Games' prime movers. SoftWar Games must, by definition, be a) Contained, b) Cushioned, and c) Controlled, in keeping with the New Games "motto"...."Play Hard, Play Fair, Nobody Hurt!"

SoftWar games tend to be very aggressive, but are played in such a way as to retain their humanity. Good examples of the genre include "Annihilation", "Knock Your Socks Off", "British Bulldog", "Boffing", "Toe Tag", "Crab Grab", "Taffy Pull", "Hunker Hawser", "Yin-Yang" as well as many other near classics. (See References #6, 7, 17.) Most SoftWar games are not equipment intensive and can involve a variety of group sizes.

Many of the activities in the foregoing 3 categories are not "games" in the sense of New Games - ands in themselves, to be played just for the fun of it. However, they are intended to be fun as well as "educational". "These activities are designed to stimulate a different way of approaching physicalness, i.e. to enable students to enjoy (play, recreation) Physical Education as much as a child enjoys the basic physicalness of active play" (#13). Participants should come to recognize that they are physical beings, and that using one's body can be a joyous, satisfying, and exhilarating experience.

Safety

Normal safety considerations should not be neglected when employing adventure simulation activities in any program or curriculum. Having all participants warm-up prior to vigorous activity is one essential. With a little creativity even such mundane exercises as static stretches can be made more enjoyable. Positive imagery, innovative fantasies, and clever new names for old exercises can all add spice to pre-activity warm-ups. (See References #14).

The use of practice falls and rolls will also be a part of the risk management protocol of knowledgable adventure games leaders. The JUDO "way of falling" - UKEMI, and the well-known military PLF (Parachute Landing Fall) are both useful skills to incorporate. The techniques of spotting familiar to all gymnasts can be very appropriately utilized in some adventure activities as well. While Game Changing, i.e. modifying the "rules" or components of an activity, is to be encouraged, one rule cannot be minimized, and that rule is SAFETY!

It is, of course, possible to utilize "real" adventure activities, in addition to simulated ones - even in the Gym or other indoor or outdoor space. Increasingly, obstacle or ropes courses, artificial climbing walls, rappel stations and other similar facilities are being developed in schools, parks, and other community centers. (See References #2, 9, 11, 14, and 15). Such activities are not only safe when properly conducted, they can also help to ameliorate the stigma too-frequently attached to physical education and recreation programs; providing only "same age/same sex/competitive team sports".

FUN

Finally, if adventure activities are to achieve their potential in your program, they must be FUN! Encourage the fun with your own contagious enthusiasm - SMILE! Put a laugh in your voice and a conspiratorial wink in your eye as you explain the scenario or procedure. Stimulate esprit 'd corps with yells of success by teams; and individual self-esteem with cheers for each persons' efforts. Strive for an atmosphere of mutual support and excitement. Even though the adventure is only simulated, the fun and excitement can (and must) become real if your aims are to be served. And don't forget to join in the fun yourself...you've got to risk that...besides you might surprise yourself and enjoy it!!

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MANAGING OUR WAY TO A PREFERRED FUTURE

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Abstract

Managing Our Way to a Preferred Future challenges basic assumptions of the delivery of leisure services as it probes the future and alternative directions of the recreation movement. Clearly identifying rationales for organization and leadership, this article examines the entrepreneurship spirit needed for individual and organizational change. Five strategies for change are examined: (1) thinking and leading, (2) organizational culture and leadership, (3) innovation, (4) trust, and (5) entrepreneurship. This article concludes that agency leaders must legitimatize entrepreneurship among their workers. To do so, leaders must promote an atmosphere of freedom and creativity. New ideas need to be supported and superiors must be willing to "get involved."

Introduction

David Gray (1984), in the May 1984 issue of National Recreation and Parks, asserted that the Parks and Recreation Movement faces "a time of great concern, uncertainty, ambivalence and ambiguity." David, you suggested that now is a time of change that makes possible reforms "that could never be accomplished in periods of stability," a time of change that brings "crisis and opportunity." True enough, but how do we turn "concern, uncertainty, ambivalence and ambiguity" into trust, innovation, and entrepreneurship? If we are to transform the "crisis" of change into the "opportunity" of change, we will need organizations that empower their members, promote autonomy, and require interdependence.

Ultimately, if we are to achieve the "reform" that you talk about, we must look to ourselves, the ones that make up our profession. We must look at the quality of our thinking and the quality of our leadership. David, you have set before us no easy task, but we will try to take one step toward meeting the challenge by addressing the questions raised above. We will begin at the beginning, the quality of our thinking and the quality of our leadership, for they determine an organizational culture, which, in turn, determines the level of innovation, trust, and entrepreneurship in any organization.

To Think and To Lead

As professionals we have two ways of thinking, and each way influences our view of leadership. One way is called "calculative" and the other way is called "meditative" thinking. Calculative thought emphasizes the world of analysis, observation, and recording; while meditative thought contemplates "essence" and importance. It is meditative thought that guides and justifies calculative thought. This is as it should be, but not as it is.

Unfortunately, when we are overwhelmed by "concern, uncertainty, ambivalence and ambiguity," meditative thinking is sacrificed for calculative thinking, creating "inactive" leadership, typified by the bureaucratic functionary who is primarily concerned with the efficient and smooth functioning of the organization. The inactive leader is preoccupied with formalizing rules, implementing new technologies, and entrenching a rigid organizational structure. This kind of recreation manager produces efficiency conformity and regularity through precise adherence to procedures. Eventually everyone, superiors and subordinates, become trapped in an arena where there is no need to think creatively. Workers act in the "normal" way. The working day is the ordinary day. Mediocracy prevails. Actions become institutionalized. And, during times of change, "crisis" sets in.

To turn "crisis" into "opportunity," leaders must think meditatively. Such thinking produces the "interactive leader" who is the opposite of the inactive leader (Benest, Foley, Welton, 1984). In comparison to the inactive leader, the interactive leader is usually considered a revolutionary and non-conformist who deviates from the status quo. The interactive leader seeks change rather than ignores it; encourages colleagues to exercise individual creativity rather than succumb to structured regularity; and ac[illegible]y places human and community concerns first rather than institutional concerns. And, in times of change, problems, concerns and even crisis are perceived as "opportunities" which can be seized for the benefit of all.

Culture and the Leader

The difference between inactive and interactive leadership is reflective of an organization's culture, its values, myths and symbols. Culture is the spirit, soul and heart of an organization. It influences the entire organization. Organizational culture "affects practically everything—from who gets promoted and how decisions are made to how employees dress and what sports they play" (Deal and Kennedy, 1981). The organizational culture created by inactive leadership has no clear values or beliefs about how to succeed and results in low morale and wasted energy. It is a "rule centered" culture and seeks the appearance of efficiency with rules covering dress, work hours, coffee breaks, performance and productivity.

On the other hand, in the culture created by interactive leadership, everyone knows the goals of the organization and works to achieve them. These cultures are "goal-centered" in which workers agree on goals and share a sense of commitment and purpose. The staff feels secure to pursue both innovation and entrepreneurship. People in this kind of vibrant culture are not satisfied with simply maintaining services; they understand change is inevitable. And in today's world, change has accelerated beyond anything known before making innovation a measure of success.

Innovation

For a long time many recreation and park agencies have misdirected resources to unproductive and obsolete programs that no longer serve a viable community need or social purpose. For example, an agency may continue to offer an annual boys basketball tournament in a community that has undergone demographic changes and is now composed of predominantly Hispanic residents who prefer soccer. Tiny tots programs, which provide social and cultural activities to help children adapt to school, do not meet the needs of single working parents with pre-school and school-aged children. If an agency is to be innovative, it must organize itself to abandon the old, the obsolete, and the unproductive. In the private sector, competition and the profit motive force organizations to give up obsolete products. But, public and non-profit sectors do not have such "bottom line" measures and thus are especially vulnerable to obsolescence. For an organization to shed the obsolete and begin to innovate, it must continuously generate ideas, involve and support certain kinds of individuals who have a propensity for change and innovation, and provide a structure conducive for new enterprises.

Innovation starts with an idea. Ideas are born small, immature and shapeless. They are promises rather than fulfillment. In an innovative agency, no idea is put down. Since few ideas survive, leaders demand that they be thought through in terms of the work needed to turn the idea into a service, a process, a business, or a technology. In confronting a new idea, the interactive leader asks, "What's to be done and what's to be learned before we can commit ouselves and our resources to this idea?"

People who can implement new ideas are called innovators. These people share a number of characteristics, as do the organizations in which innovation flourishes. According to Kanter (1982):

— They are comfortable with change, trust that uncertainties will be clarified, and view unmet needs as opportunities.
— They have clarity of direction and long-range horizons that help them see setbacks as only temporary.
— They are thorough in preparing for meetings and presentations, and they cultivate a sense of who can help them in the organization.
— They have a participative management style, encouraging subordinates' efforts, promising rewards, and keeping their promises.
— They are persistent and persuasive, knowing that successes do not come overnight, but through perserverance.

Trust

It is the task of the interactive leader to develop innovators and innovation. However, innovation can only be promoted in a culture characterized by a shared sense of trust. Trust is important because, without it, one is afraid to take on the risk involved in changing and growing. It is the catalyst for change. When trust is high, persons and social systems change naturally in beneficial ways. Trust enhances the flow of mental processes. In his work on integrating the individual and the organization, Argyris (1982) noted that removal of fear and the development of trust is essential for "Psychic successes." Psychic energy increases as one experiences psychic success and decreases with psychic failure. Argyris cited two requirements for trust to replace fear:

(1) The individual must value himself and aspire to experience an increasing sense of competence; and
(2) The person must increase awareness and acceptance of self and others.

With trust, psychic energy is increased and mobilized, creativity is heightened, people act in more direct and effective ways, and the whole organization [illegible] its. An organizational culture that is trustworthy and promotes innovation also encourages entrepreneurship.

The Entepreneur

In isolated situations, during these changing times in leisure and human services, we see a flourishing of "new entrepreneurship." While the term is often bandied around, what exactly is this "new entrepreneurship?" Basically, it involves agency leaders, acting along or with partners, to seek and seize new opportunities to deliver services in unorthodox ways to existing or new clients, and to generate the revenue to pay for their effort (Benest, 1985). Some examples include:

-- Agencies, like the Human Services Department in Gardena, California, have repackaged traditional services, identified new program benefits attractive to private companies, and marketed the programs for a fee to local employers. Such services include child care services for employees of local firms, English-as-a-second-language in the factory programs, supervisory training, and drug and alcohol abuse services.

-- Some cities and counties, such as San Francisco and Los Angeles County, and special districts, such as the East Bay Park and Recreation District in Oakland, Calif. have developed fund-raising foundations that apply for corporate grants, solicit civic contributions, and conduct fund-raising special events.

-- The City of San Diego, San Ramon Public Utilities District in California, and the City of Edmonton in Alberta, Canada, have created non-profit community foundations or use existing ones to operate facilities and conduct programs. Local governments partially subsidize these "operating" foundations which also raise outside funds or match the government grant with "sweat equity."

-- Where there is a high demand for new residential or commercial development, yet limited space, cities like San Francisco and Santa Monica, Calif. have insisted that developers either create services or pay in-lieu fees to fund new programs such as affordable housing, child care, parks, or cultural arts.

-- Public agencies have been successful in negotiating with the private sector for the use of non-cash resources in meeting community needs. The City of Baltimore negotiated with John Hopkins University Hospital to establish a health services project at senior citizen housing projects. Cities across the nation have involved businesses and labor unions in providing free materials, equipment, and services to rehabilitate housing structures as shelters for the homeless. The Hillsborough County, Minnesota, Department of Aging Services negotiated with Honeywell to use its vans during non-peak hours to transport the elderly to nutrition sites and senior centers. And senior programs throughout California have involved merchants to sell services and merchandise to the elderly at 10-20% discounts as part of the Golden State Discount Program.

Who are the entrepreneurs who initiate these new schemes to develop the support and funding to better serve people? Entrepreneurs are those who work for themselves. They are people who want control of their lives, to be more than wage earners. They see themselves as making things happen rather than waiting for things to happen.

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To be successful, parks and recreation professionals must be entrepreneurs in the sense that they actively work to bring about change, to make things happen, and to create a better world. Entrepreneurs feel "unfamiliar" with the usual work setting. They prefer risk over safety. In parks and recreation, the entrepreneur is willing to risk security and to some extent the agency rather than perpetuate tradition. There are three dominant personality traits of the entrepreneur:

- -- Locus of control. This means they feel they influence the course of events. They are in charge of their personal events.
- -- Independence. They do not see themselves as having a "boss." They work for themselves.
- -- Imagination. This is important in that entrepreneurs must be able to see themselves successful in their projected venture. They must feel what they are attempting is credible.

Based upon these traits, entrepreneurs display certain characteristics. Gaebler (1983) has listed six:

1) Goal oriented, not task oriented
2) Flexible
3) Willing to take calculated risks
4) Profit-oriented
5) Future oriented
6) Create a sense of ownership for themselves

While many professionals may not exhibit all these entrepreneurial qualities, they may have entrepreneurial potential. All they lack are the proper incentives. Thus, an entrepreneur can often be "discovered." That is, through interactive leadership, the conditions can be created within an organizational culture that encourages the entrepreneur to come forward. The responsibility of the leader is not limited to hiring people with entrepreneurial qualities but includes providing the conditions that promote entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurs thrive in those organizations whose culture has a sense of "aliveness." Employees are optimistic about the future because they know that they are making things happen. They see change as an opportunity to continue working toward their goals or ideals.

Agency leaders must legitimatize entrepreneurship among their workers. To do so, leaders must promote an atmosphere of freedom and creativity. New ideas need to be supported, work hours need to be flexible, and agency resources need to be available. Employees cannot feel dependent and controlled. Yet, legitimacy goes beyond simply arranging for support; superiors must be willing to "get involved." They must take an active interest in the workers' projects. There should be periodic progress reports, frequent problem-solving discussion, and sincere commitment to improving the quality of work life as well as community life.

As we step back and look at all that has been said in this article, it seems overwhelming. How can we as professionals live up to these standards? Are they realistic? Certainly none of us are the "perfect" leader and no organization is the "perfect" organization. In fact, most of us would acknowledge that there can probably never be the "perfect" leader or the "perfect" organization, but that does not mean that we cannot try. Perhaps it is more reasonable that interactive leadership--with its attendant trust, innovation and entrepreneurship--be a goal for us all. As David Gray noted, "in human affairs, the dream always precedes the reality. What cannot be dreamed cannot be done."

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PRICING FOR RECREATION

by
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Pricing is a complex, and not easily understood, process in any recreation enterprise. Due to its direct relationship to the profitability of an agency, pricing has many varied components. Each of these components, must be combined in a logical approach to maximize profit for the agency.

In general, pricing strategy attempts to combine five basic elements to form an effective and cohesive pricing structure. These components are: 1) Competitive structure of the recreation industry. 2) Price sensitivity. 3) Cost structure of the agency. 4) Legal and social considerations. 5) Goals, position and resources of the agency. Each of these will be discussed in detail to explain pricing strategy.

COMPETITIVE STRUCTURE OF THE COMMERCIAL RECREATION INDUSTRY

When discussing the competitive structure of recreation, economists have attempted to define competition factors into three basic categories. These are, from least competitive to most competitive: monopolies, oligophies, and polyopolies. Each of these classifications is concerned with competition.

In an polyopoly there are many competitors each of whom are attempting to maintain their market share. The reason for the importance placed on competition, is that as competition increases many options for the recreation manager decrease.

In an oligophy there are relatively few competitors for the same product or service. This exists when there are price leaders. In this case, one individual company can affect the pricing of the entire industry simply by changing prices.

The final form of competition, monopoly, is where there is virtually no competition. This does not hold true in any recreation enterprise since true monopolies are confined to the utility companies in the U.S.

In all cases, but particularly in those relating to the oligophy and polyopoly, the easiest way to differentiate your product from its competitors is through offering additional products or services. In most cases, service is the factor that is used repeatedly. It allows you to create something unique and different about your product or service simply by providing additional benefits to the consumer. These may include additional sales help to discuss product benefits to aspects that relate to the product itself.

PRICE SENSITIVITY

Price sensitivity can be broken into two components: industry demand and individual firm sensitivity. Industry demand relates to the amount of recreation required by the population. Sensitivity for the individual firm refers to the demand for a specific brand. Before discussing each of these, we need to spend some time discussing what is meant by the term "price sensitivity." Demand is said to be sensitive when volume increases substantially, when prices are lowered slightly. This, in economic terms, is "elastic demand." Conversely, if demand is effected little by price then, in economic terms, this is considered "inelastic demand."

Price elasticity is difficult to determine because of changes in environmental competition and other elements of the marketing mix. The impact of price change on consumers will frequently occur after a time lag. Let me caution you to use price elasticity analysis as a guideline only, since differences can be substantial.

Industry Demand. Price sensitivity of industry demand is extremely volatile depending on many factors, among which are; importance to the consumer, saturation of need for the product, income profile of consumers, existence of substitute products or services, and different consumer segments.

Certain purchases can become very important to consumers including food or other staples that are necessary to the consumer. In recreation, there are many theories that indicate that once a person has become interested in specific recreation activities those activities tend to become very important in the person's purchasing pattern.

Perceived product/service saturation relates to the amount of a good or service that a person is currently using. Once a consumer saturation point is reached, it would not do the producer any good to reduce price since the consumer would not be willing to increase this purchases even at a lower price.

When we consider the income profile of consumers in recreation, there are a vast number of products and/or services that are geared specifically to the upper income classes. Given this market segment (ie. an individual with a large disposable income,) it is easy to see that a small price change may not effect quantity demand. Since we are dealing with a segment of the population which can adequately afford to purchase the goods at a higher price. We need to consider this when pricing the product.

Next, are there substitutes for our good or service? Any type of recreation such as an outdoor amusement park, competes with all other forms of recreation enterprises. Therefore, the existence of many other recreational activities in the area could substantially effect the pricing decision for entrance fees to the amusement park. Other examples of competition could be bowling alleys, rollerskating rinks, and swimming pools.

Individual Agency. Price sensitivity for the individual firm can be discussed in terms of that firm's market share. Specifically, that percentage of the total market that a particular individual recreation enterprise has at any one time and how it can increase its share of the market. This can be accomplished through one of three methods:

First, by attempting to differentiate its product offerings through feature, style, durability or some other tangible or intangible aspect as its relates to the product/service. This could be any number of activities not limited to, but including, increase in service, follow-up, serviceability of the contract, decor, location, etc.

Second, through promotional offerings. Promotional, in this concept, relates to the amount of advertising done to promote the given recreation agency. It is sometimes possible to acquire a premium on the purchase price by increasing the amount of advertising and thereby creating an increased demand for the product or service.

Third, through perceived status of the commercial recreation activity. This can be accomplished by a number of methods. One is the high service outlet where a high quality approach may be taken and a premium is placed on service given to the customer, particularly through the design of the facility and/or the prestige given it. This happens when the product or service is supplied at a very limited number of locations that are designed to attract an elite clientele. The alternative to this is a high volume approach where the good or service is distributed through a large number of outlets, commanding a smaller margin of profit on each item but generating greater total sales by increasing the number of sales taking place.

When considering price sensitivity for an individual commercial recreation enterprise it is impossible to determine the effect of a price change without first attempting to analyze the firm's total marketing mix including all aspects of the business as it relates to the customer. This is particularly true if we are competing in a market where there is strong competition because a downward pricing change will be followed by a competitors, in an attempt to maintain market share. While an upward change in pricing would result in a substantial loss of market share unless there are additional services or perceived benefits associated with the product or service. Therefore, the sensitivity of demand for individual commercial recreation enterprise is very difficult to establish and, in most cases, is not determined except by long-term analysis.

COST STRUCTURE OF THE COMMERCIAL RECREATION ENTERPRISE

In any recreation setting, costs associated with producing the product or service can be broken up into two categories; fixed and variable costs. Both of these cost structures have unique characteristics that need to be understood by recreation manager since they behave in unique ways and that behavior has a tendency to dictate what can and cannot be done in relation to pricing and cost controls in an agency. It is apparent that it is easier for a recreation manager to control costs than it is for him to control selling price. Any manager has at his/her disposal many methods of controlling costs. However, the public dictates the selling price. A thorough knowledge of the types of costs involved in a commercial recreation enterprise is extremely important to the manager.

Fixed Costs. Fixed costs are associated with a product or service and do not vary in relation to the number of units produced. In most cases, they are associated with the cost of doing business, whether or not any product is sold. One example of this includes rental on a facility which must be paid whether or not any customers come in the door. Other examples could include advertising, insurance, etc.

Variable Costs. Variable costs are associated with the direct production of the product or service and vary in a one to one relationship with the number of units produced. Variable costs increase proportionately as the number of units produced increase.

The input of cost structure for the recreation enterprise portion of the pricing strategy should consist of three measures; 1) the ratio of fixed to variable costs, 2) the economy of scale that may be available, and 3) the cost of our firm relative our competitors.

Ratio Fixed To Variable Costs. Once the variable and fixed costs have been identified, it is easy to establish the relationship between the variable and fixed costs. As a general rule, a company with high relative fixed costs and low variable costs is volume sensitive. In this particular instance the easiest and most effective way to increase profit is to increase the volume of output since once fixed costs are covered, everything between the total costs and the sales price is profit. Therefore, it is wisest to increase volume of output.

The opposite is true when there are very high variable costs in relationship to low fixed costs. This situation is termed price sensitive. The major method of increasing profitability of price sensitive enterprises is by raising the selling price of the product. In this case the fixed costs are reached at an earlier stage. Again, we are looking at a situation in which the profit is the difference between variable costs and the selling price. This would be arrived at an earlier stage, thus increasing the profitability for the sale of additional items.

In most cases, in the recreation industry due to its high nature of services provided, we can assume businesses to be volume sensitive.

Economies of Scale. Economies of scale, is the ability of an enterprise to produce goods/services at a lower price given a higher volume. This may be due to the price breaks that the suppliers give the enterprise with a higher quantity purchase. It relates directly to a lowering of the variable. If economies of scale are available, a much higher production would result in a lower cost per unit for each item sold, thereby allowing for a reduced priced which should increase the volume to offset the increased production.

If the manager of a recreation enterprise completes an analysis of his competitors within the industry and finds that he is producing a similar quality product or service at a lower cost than his competitors he can find himself in a very advantageous position. In fact, if this is the case, he may very well want to initiate a price leader strategy where he will try to reduce the price on his product or service sufficiently to generate a large share of the market. Since his cost for producing the good is less than his competitors, if they reduce their price to meet his, they will be making less profit per item. If they do not rescue their price then he will be able to substantially alter the market share allowing him to increase his productivity and profitability.

LEGAL AND SOCIAL CONSIDERATION IN RECREATION

In numerous cases, the recreation manager may want to establish differential pricing for different classes of customers. The most obvious is quantity purchases vs. individual sales. If an individual or group is willing to buy multiple goods or services from a given producer, it stands to reason that they should be able to purchase them at a lower price. A policy relating to pricing for different groups is an attempt to recognize the differences in services provided, operation costs and/or quantities of purchases. These are legitimate

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methods for cost reductions. However, the manager must be careful when he is offering differential pricing so that it cannot be construed as discrimination against some specific group. Under the Robinson/Putman Act of 1936 price discrimination is legal under certain circumstances such as meeting the price of a competitor in good faith or if the price differential is cost justified (ie. based on a lower selling cost or lower number of services provided.) It is important to note that under no circumstances should competitors in a recreation industry get together to set the price for goods or services. This is illegal and will be prosecuted.

Of further concern are legal constraints based on the sales of goods. If a recreation manager is selling recreation goods and not services, he must be aware of the fair trade laws or minimum sales prices as dictated by law in most states. These vary from state to state and need to be researched in the state in which the enterprise is located.

In addition to legal issues, there are many social issues relating to pricing for certain social and economic groups in our society. These social considerations are of utmost importance to the recreation manager, since he is quite often open to heavy criticism concerning the people who use his facility or those who would like to use the facility. Since recreation may be viewed as being the right of all people, the cost factor associated with various minority populations within the United States can have significant social impact on the recreation enterprise. It is important that the manager of a recreation enterprise firmly establish policies and/or guidelines to deal with these segments of the population. This will result in reduced conflict later when public criticism could otherwise become substantial.

GOALS, POSITION AND RESOURCES OF RECREATION ENTERPRISES

The goals of the recreation enterprise may include an attempt to secure a portion of the market share in which case the manager may determine that the best approach may be to set a lower product price to lure a portion of the market away from existing competitors. Another goal could be to skim the high end of the market by offering something which is new and unique and to attempt to make a profit and at some later date, reduce the price when those who have been willing to pay the increased cost have purchased the goods or services. Other goals include an attempt to establish a strong social image for the company with resulting lower profit by providing socially acceptable services to lower income or minority population.

The goals of the agency, whether they include market penetration, skimming the e high end, or what ever, have a definite role in the pricing strategy. Quite often municipal recreation enterprises provide recreation activities at low or no cost. This can substantially effect their pricing strategy. However, increasingly, municipal recreation agencies have come under attack not only from taxpayers who perceive the money as being wasted, but also from commercial recreation agencies who see them as unfair competition due to the lower price.

The position that the recreation enterprise maintains within the industry is of extreme importance. If it is considered to be the leader or the elite, then that ente[illegible]dingly (ie. charge a higher price for their goods or services.) If, on the other hand, it is a new agency entering a highly competitive recreation industry, the manager may need to be content with attempting to meet the average price and to differentiate product/service. This would eliminate the possibility of creating too low a price and creating attention from the big competitors in the market who would then lower their prices in an attempt to drive the new recreation enterprise out of business. Therefore the position that the enterprise has in relationship to the overall market is of extreme importance.

The final consideration is the resources of the firm. These resources may include, but are not limited to; financial resources, physical resources and the talent of the managerial staff. They resources can be meager or extensive. If they are extensive in nature, particularly as they relate to the financial resources, then it is possible that the manager may want to go with a lower price strategy for an extended period in order to drive out the competition or to establish a substantial market share. Remember, it is always easier to cut prices than to raise them.

These five components of pricing strategy are the most important ones to be concerned with when attempting to establish the price for a given product or service. It is important to discuss the various methods of increasing profits as they relate to recreation enterprises.

METHODS OF INCREASING PROFITS IN RECREATION

Any time you are discussing the profitability of a recreation enterprise, you have only two factors which you can manipulate; cost and price. The following methods of manipulating cost and price are effective in increasing the profits of a recreation enterprise. Each of these examples will be discussed as they relate to the technique being applied, the expected outcome of that technique and the assumptions underlying each. This should help in determining whether or not they are effective for any given situation. These six techniques are: 1) Reduced costs, 2) Raised price, 3) Reduced price, 4) Raised costs, 5) Improved marketing, or 6) A Combination of the above.

Reduced Costs. One of the most common ways of increasing the profitability of the commercial recreation enterprise is through the reduction of costs associated with the business. There are three ways that this can be accomplished; 1) to reduce fixed costs, 2) to reduce variable costs, or 3) by establishing economies of scale within the industry. Since most recreation enterprises are heavily into fixed costs, this may be the best method of increasing profitability. Methods for lowering fixed costs include: lowering the rent or utility usage by going to more energy efficient sources, being careful to make sure that all utilities when not being used are reduced, looking at the requirements for the operation of a given recreation enterprise and attempting to reduce these, or the reduction of some of the variables as associated with the production of the unit.

Raise The Price of The Product. Obviously, one of the ways, to increase profits is to increase the sales price. This would increase the margin since the margin is the sales price minus the total cost. However, the assumption associated with increasing the product price is inelastic price demand. We are anticipating that people are willing to pay a higher price for our product or service because there is a strong demand for that good or service.

Reduced Price. If we attempt to increase profitability, the option of reducing price does not seem to be one that would be effective. However, if we anticipate that we have elastic demand, and we therefore lower the price slightly, we are expecting that it will increase the number of products sold substantially. In this situation since the total units have increased, we will be making a smaller profit on an increased number of units and thereby increasing our profitability. A small profit on a substantially larger quantity is better than a larger profit on a very small quantity.

Increased Costs. As was stated in the previous example, it does not seem logical to increase profitability by increasing costs leaving selling price alone. However, an increase in cost will result in some type of increase in the quality of the product or service provided. Given this increased value of the product or service, sales will increase because we are now providing a better price/value relationship than our competitors. This would make our product or service more desirable to the consumer, increasing the demand for the product and increasing the total quantity sold provided this increase in quantity is sufficiently large to offset the increased price. We have then reached a our goal of increased profitability.

Improved Marketing. This assumption results in an increase in costs. However, this increase in costs is in the fixed costs area. If we are able to increase the desirability of the product due to increased public awareness or through the penetration of a new market for our product, we can then logically anticipate an increased demand for our product or service. In this situation, the increased demand would result in increased number of units sold at the same price thereby increasing our profitability, provided that the increased demand outdistances the increased cost.

Combination. The final method of increasing profitability is any combination of the above five techniques. Anything is possible when dealing with the variables of price and cost. These combinations are too extensive to discuss at this stage. Keep in mind the assumptions underlying the previous five methods of increasing profits if more than one of these is valid in your case then you may be justified in using a combination of the preceding techniques.

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS IN PRICING

Listed below are a number of considerations that the recreation enterprise manager should keep in mind when attempting to establish the price for the product/service. Not all of these are valid in all cases, however, you may want to keep each of the following in mind.

1. Each pricing case.must be carefully judged in terms of competitive structure of the industry, price sensitivity, cost structure of the firm, legal and social considerations, goals and resources of the individual firm, and a strong dose of common sense.

2. Assuming that supply and demand remain equal it is not wice to cut prices if the competition does, instead try to provide innovative techniques and/or try to find a new market area.

3. When considering pricing be sure to take into consideration the value of services rendered which are over and above the cost of the services.

4. The price charged should not be a function of cost but is related to the value and benefits perceived by the consumer.

5. Whenever establishing a recreation enterprise, remember service is the difference between success and failure and can be charged for.

6. Be sure to go slow on dropping prices. They are easy to lower but difficult to raise.

7. Remember to set your price based on what the market will bear, not on cost alone.

8. In order to leave additional flexibility, it is sometimes better to reduce price by using coupons or promotions than by reducing prices across the board.

9. It is better to raise prices by small amounts a number of times than by one large increase.

10. Pricing on the basis of cost is easier to compute, but, numerous opportunities are missed for additional profit.

11. It is easy to reduce prices, it much more effective to develop innovative techniques to maintain your price.

12. It best to set prices for a new product or service low enough to make competition entry very difficult.

13. People are willing, able and expecting to pay an additional price for services that are provided.

14. It is a good a idea to be slow to lower prices and quick to raise them.

15. Remember, there is not such thing as an obscene profit.

YEAR-ROUND SCHOOLS: THEIR EFFECT ON LEISURE PATTERNS AND PROGRAMS

ReNae Torbenson, Provo School District

Abstract

Year-round schools have been moving into Utah at an alarming rate. Provo School District was the first to implement a year-round school program at Westridge Elementary in July of 1984. To date, there are currently nine year-round schools in operation around the state with another fifty schools in the planning and development stage, to be implemented within the next two years.

The existence of year-round schools in a community can have major effects on various organizations. In particular, issues in regards to leisure programming, participation, and scheduling will be raised by those who are involved in a year-round school program. Recreation agencies that foresee year-round schools in their communities will need to prepare to meet the changing lifestyles and leisure needs of year-round families.

This paper will provide the reader with a general overview of year-round education, including its projected benefits; community lifestyle changes in vacation and leisure patterns; and an outline of the methods used by Provo School District and Provo City Recreation Department in establishing a year-round school recreation enrichment program.

Overview of Year-Round Education

During recent years, the interest in year-round education and year-round schools has increased dramatically. Nation-wide, there are over three million American students attending schools that operate "year-round." California leads the nation with 195 year-round schools enrolling over 106,000 students in 57 school districts (Glines, 1978).

Year-round school is simply a way of organizing the attendance so that some of the students are in school at any given time of the year, while the remainder are on vacation. This principle can take a variety of forms when it is actually put into practice, and it is one reason why year-round education is so popular; the community can choose the year-round calendar that best fits its needs. This section is limited to those year-round programs commonly found across the United States.

Four Quarter Plan

The Four Quarter Plan is the oldest year-round school calendar used today. This plan divides the school year into four quarters, or terms. Students are also divided into four groups and assigned three quarters of instruction and one quarter of vacation. One-fourth of the students are always on vacation. The Four Quarter Plan was the first all-year plan to develop greater efficiency in the use of school building space. Through this pattern of scheduling, a 33 percent facilities savings could result (Shepard and Baker, 1977).

Quinmester Plan

In the Quinmester Plan, the school calendar is divided into five, forty-five day sessions. Students must attend four of the five sessions in a given school year. The Quinmester Plan offers the greatest flexibility to students in junior and senior high school by creating shorter, more intense courses.

45-15 Plan

The 45-15 Plan is currently the most popular year-round calendar used in the United States, especially at the elementary level. Under this plan, students are divided into four equal groups. Each group is assigned to one of four different tracks to follow throughout the year. Each track is in session for forty-five days, followed by a fifteen day vacation. The tracks are staggered so that one track is always on vacation. The school is in continuous operation with 75 percent of students and teaching faculty in attendence. This plan allows school enrollment to be increased by 33 percent.

60-20 Plan

The 60-20 Plan is very similiar to the 45-15 Plan except that the vacation blocks are twenty days instead of fifteen. The studentbody is divided into four equal groups. Each group attends school for sixty days and then vacations for twenty days. One group is always on vacation. This plan, like the 45-15, allows schools to accommodate 33 percent more students (Shepard and Baker, 1977).

Projected Benefits

In recent years the chief motivators for stimulating interest in implementing a year-round program are cited by Adams (1970) as follows: 1) to save money; 2) to make greater use of present facilities; 3) to defer construction of new buildings for a savings to taxpayers; 4) to keep high caliber teachers in the profession by making it possible for them to earn higher salaries; and 5) to prevent loss of learning during long summer vacations.

Operating Costs

The experiences of a number of year-round schools suggests that changing to a year-round schedule produces savings in operating costs. Operating costs include such items as heat/air conditioning, administrative, clerical, and supplies. These are calculated on a per-pupil basis cost, comparing the traditional school to the year-round school. Those schools that have managed to reduce operating costs suggest that a 5 percent reduction is a reasonable expectation. Certain expense categories will yield savings while other categories will increase. Whether operating costs increase or decrease will largely be determined by how well the school plans and operates its year-round school program (Shepard and Baker, 1977).

Space and Construction

A direct result of adopting a year-round program would be roughly a 25 to 33 percent gain in more classroom space without additional construction and related tax increases. Where schools are being fully used for only nine months this savings could amount to one "free" school for every four that are constructed in the future. In otherwords, year-round schools make fuller use of existing facilities, thereby slowing the rate at which new schools are required. Also, when special purpose facilities such as libraries, science labs, band, physical education, and others are open year-round, a possible 25 percent savings on these buildings can be attained.

Teacher Benefits

One of the major problems that school districts face is drawing high caliber personnel into the teaching profession. Educators in favor of the year-round school maintain that when teachers are able to stay in their chosen profession year-round, the professional status of teachers rises. Teachers do benefit from the year-round concept by receiving one-third more salary for teaching 240 days instead of 180 days. This draws in more male teachers, upgrades teacher morale, and results in less turnover.

Student Education

The one benefit most often cited by teachers for year-round schools is the better retention level of instruction due to shorter vacation periods. The three-month vacation of the traditional school makes for forgetfulness. The short vacations of year-round schedules eliminates the need for extensive reviews at the beginning of a term. Students also seem more enthusiastic and alert, and have fewer adjustment and behavior problems after a shorter vacation. Teachers also report that there are fewer "cliques," because just as one begins to form, some of the students go off-track, forcing the remaining students to make new friends.

Community Lifestyle Changes

Lifestyles are more flexible than most people are willing to admit. However, because a large number of community businesses and institutions are organized to blend with the traditional nine-month school calendar, the adoption of year-round schools could have major effects throughout the community as a whole.

In most areas, the family has been the main objection to the concept of year-round education. Those who oppose the movement express concern that year-round school tends to polarize the school community from the rest of the city. They also state that a year-round schedule uproots lifestyles, tears families apart, and absorbs functions traditionally assigned to the home and family. These attitudes are especially prevalent in regards to summer vacations and recreational pursuits.

Summer Vacations

In a year-end evaluation report of year-round schools in the Cherry Creek School District (Feldman, 1983), over one-third of the respondents indicated that they had been inconvenienced because of the interference of year-round school with vacation plans. This was especially true for those families having older children in junior or senior high schools that operated on the traditional calendar. Parents generally expressed that there was nothing for the younger children to do during the winter breaks of year-round school, and that they must take their summer vacation together.

On the other side of this issue ... those parents who have discovered that they ... pattern of leisure times in a year-round sc... ...xible families can do a lot more with four thr... ...ations spread throughout the year than they can ... the three-month summer vacation.

On a broader perspective, the leveling effect of year-round schools should be beneficial to the tourist industry, the traffic flow on highways, and the use of parks and other recreational sites that stand vacant during the winter and are overcrowded during the summer.

Recreational Pursuits

One of the major issues that parents who are involved in year-round schools raise is that their children can no longer participate in many of the traditional summer recreation programs offered by both public and private agencies. Additionally, when their children are on vacations during the cold winter months, there is little for them to do in the way of organized activities and supervised play.

In some areas, little or nothing is done in the way to help alleviate this parental concern. But several school districts and city recreation agencies have combined their resources and facilities to offer productive recreation opportunities for those students who are on a track vacation.

In the Cherry Creek School District in Colorado, the city recreation department developed a recreation enrichment program for students involved in year-round schools. During the third year of the (year-round) project. . . an intersession or off-track program was established with cooperation of the Aurora Recreation Department. This program offered activities for children on vacation at a nominal cost. The Aurora Recreation Department also scheduled swimming and tennis lessons during the summer in three-week blocks of time which enabled year-round school students to participate. It is impossible to over-estimate the districts gratitude to the Aurora Recreation Department and staff for their help in meeting the year-round communities' needs (Koeppe, 1983).

In many communities, a variety of agencies offer summer programs for traditional school children. With a major influx of year-round schools, however, these agencies would face severe consequences. Although the summer demand for such programs would be less, a year-round demand would be created. Most agencies would find it a profit to remain open all year long.

A school calendar and a community's lifestyles must be compatible. As N.S. Rifkin (1973) urges, "If conflicts exist between the calendar and lifestyles, find them and try to resolve them. Know how many people are substantially affected and what can be done by the school or community to make the transition as painless as possible."

A Provo Perspective

Provo School District currently has two year-round programs in operation with two additional schools in the planning stage. Westridge Elementary launched its program in July of 1984, followed one year later by Sunset View Elementary. Both schools follow the popular 45-15 calendar. Although neither school was facing serious space or financial difficulties, the educational advantages that were possible caught the interest of the school communities and the program was adopted.

Shortly into the program, patrons began to raise questions concerning recreation programming for year-round school students. Already heavy participators in the traditional summer programs offered by the city, the school community was beginning to feel the lifestyle changes that occur in moving to a year-round schedule.

Dr. John Bone, principal of Westridge Elementary, approached Provo City Recreation Department and requested that they become involved with the year-round schools to address these concerns. From the city recreation department's standpoint, the implementation of year-round schools in the community would begin to directly affect the programs and services offered city-wide for children. Because of this, Provo City Recreation Department agreed to participate in the development of a year-round school recreation program for year-round school students.

School Community Survey

Near the beginning of the school year, a recreation needs assessment survey was conducted of the Westridge School community. Also at that time, fourteen neighborhood community meetings were held to receive direct parental input on the leisure needs of year-round school students. The survey was conducted by Westridge Elementary in cooperation with Provo Recreation Department.

Over 90 percent of the survey respondents indicated that they were in favor of seeing recreational programs offered for their children when they were on vacation, and numerous activities were listed for program ideas that included arts and crafts, safety courses, cooking, and traditional sports and games. Other significant findings included that roughly 95 percent of year-round school students were staying at home with either a parent or babysitter during their vacation breaks, and the survey respondents indicated that they would prefer to have any recreation programs offered during the regular school day hours instead of after school or on Saturdays (Holte, 1985).

Year-Round Recreation Program

From the information previously acquired, an off-track recreation enrichment program was implemented at Westridge Elementary. During a student's three-week break, he or she could come back to school (or nearby city park) and participate in a variety of recreation and education programs including: tumbling, computer, cooking, science labs, ceramics, first aid, sports, and tennis. Occasionally, special events and excursions were also scheduled.

The off-track recreation program was offered from 8:30 a.m. until noon, with an afternoon playground program at city park sites two days a week. Two rooms in the school building were specifically set aside for these classes. Students who normally rode the bus to school were allowed to continue during their vacation breaks for transportation to the off-track programs. The program was not designed to meet full-day child care needs, but to provide recreation and leisure opportunities for the year-round student.

All programs and classes operated on a fee basis, however, costs were usually nominal. Instructors were recruited from Brigham Young Univeristy students, local community education teachers, and neighborhood parents and volunteers.

Financing and Administration

Provo School District has great interest in the development of the program, as it is one of the major issues that needs to be solved before a community can totally accept the year-round education concept. The school district made a commitment to the expansion of the program by employing a full-time recreation supervisor to work directly with the year-round schools.

Provo City Recreation Department also has interest in the development of the program as it will directly affect the participation level in city programs as additional schools initiate year-round schedules. Although the city was not able to share the financing of the program with the school district, the city recreation department plays an active advisory and support role to the program. Coordination between the school district and city on such items as program philosophy, fees, and publicity maintains a compatible working relationship between the two agencies. Additionally, several traditional city programs for children have been slightly modified to include year-round school students so that program duplication is avoided.

Program Evaluation

The off-track recreation enrichment program was received very favorably by the Westridge School community. Participation during the fall, winter, and spring months was very high, while participation during the summer months slacked off due to favorable weather and family vacation schedules.

The off-track program was rated as being a very important or somewhat important aspect of a year-round calendar by 83 percent of the respondents in a year-end evaluation survey of the recreation program. The survey also indicated that 88 percent of the parents felt that the off-track program provided definite means of enriching year-round school students vacation times. Other findings included that the majority of parents felt a need for the off-track programs mainly during the winter and fall months, rather than the spring and summer. This finding paralleled closely with the participation patterns in the off-track recreation program (Torbenson, 1985).

These patron attitudes of the Westridge School community were similiar to an evaluation study conducted on year-round school programs in Chula Vista, California. Parent attitudes concerning advantages and disadvantages of the year-round schedule indicated that 35 percent of the parents thought that the intersession, or off-track recreation programs were worthwhile and valuable. Only 3 percent responded that the intersession program did not meet their expectations (Nygaard, 1974).

Recommendations and Conclusions

Recreation and leisure concerns are important issues that need to be dealt with in the implementation of any year-round school program that requires changes in family lifestyles. The following recommendations are given as guidelines for those agencies who will be facing year-round schools in their communities in the near future.

1. Any school district that is seriously considering an adoption of a year-round calendar should make an early contact with local recreation agencies (or vice versa), as the year-round calendar can have major implications in this area.

2. Planning for a year-round recreation program should result through cooperative effort from the school district, recreation agency, parents, and students.

3. If the school district and recreation agency decide to co-coordinate a year-round recreation program, items such as program philosophy, funding, and facility sharing need to be addressed.

4. It is recommended that the year-round school set aside one classroom specifically for off-track programs. Off-track bus service should also be made available for transportation to and from programs.

5. The year-round recreation program should be based directly on the interests and needs of those who will be participating. Questionnaires and surveys are valuable tools to gather this information. The success of such a program will depend in part upon the extent to which it captures the interest of students and the appeal to parents as being worthwhile.

6. All appropriate policies and rules of the school should remain intact during the off-track programs.

7. Ongoing evaluation of the program is important, as the recreation and leisure needs of participants can change as they settle down and become adjusted to the new schedule they are on.

As more and more school districts in Utah implement a year-round program, it will be important for both public and private recreation agencies to adjust to meet the changing lifestyles and leisure needs of year-round families. Agencies will need to be flexible in offering their services on a year-round basis, rather than heavy seasonal concentration.

The integration of recreation programs into the year-round calendar is a challenging and innovative topic in Utah at the present time. Since it looks like year-round schools are here to stay, we need to meet this challenge head-on. With proper planning and coordination, the year-round school can be a beneficial and profitable experience for all.

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A WELL KEPT SECRET

Thomas C. Barnhart, North Dakota State University

Abstract

This article is an overview of the development of a successful cultural arts park that is celebrating it's tenth year of operation this past summer. Dr. Barnhart is Associate Professor of Leisure Studies and Recreational Services at North Dakota State University and is also President of the Board of Commissioners of the Fargo Park District.

Some people might say that Fargo, North Dakota is two steps from the end of the earth, but those who live in this city know we have one of the best kept secrets in the United States. In Fargo, North Dakota and it's sister city to the east Moorhead, Minnesota there are approximately 100,000 persons of which 16,000 students attend the three institutions of higher learning. The access to numerous art, music, sports and other cultural activities at the universities coupled with an outstanding community theatre, nationally recognized public schools, and a program of parks and recreation activity that is second to no other in the country make this community a place that exhibits great quality of life. It is true that "forty degrees below zero keeps the riff/raft out" (a local saying), but it is equally true that the many opportunities that are available, make this place a city where one can truly participate in life.

One example that is important to share with other parks and recreation professionals is the development and operation of Trollwood Park, a cultural arts park located in north Fargo adjacent to the Red River of the North. On a site which once was a county hospital, a paupers grave site and a poor farm now is thriving with up to 10,000 visitors a weekend. These visitors are brought to this park by a diverse set of recreation programs that include:
-Music in the Park
-Fine Arts Celebration
-Renaissance Festival
-Scandinavian Hjemkomst Festival

The Hjemkomst is a replica of an original Viking ship that was built by a local public school teacher and sailed to Norway from Duluth, Minnesota. The ship has been returned to Moorhead and is the focus of a new heritage center being built in Moorhead.

The Scandinavian weekend features bands and choirs from Sweden and Norway and many native foods and dances.

-An All American Welcome
This activity was held in conjunction with the World Junior Softball Championship held in Fargo this past summer.

-International Heritage
The musical "The King and I" was a hit during this week. Families, couples and singles from all over the region make a point of attending this annual musical event that is a part of the Trollwood success story.

-Family Funtastic Carnival
The Muscular Dystrophy Carnival is an annual activity during this week.

-Black Forest Fest
The annual art show is one event that was planned for this week.

-Country Jamboree
-FM Intertribal Indian Pow Wow
-Magic in the Air
A hot air balloon rally is a highlight of this event.

-Christmas Bazaar
This is one of the most popular activities of the summer when everyone does their Christmas shopping 121 days early.

Each of these special events takes place during the weekends in June, July and August; and each activity has one or more business sponsors. To accommodate each activity special facilities have been built or remodeled from existing buildings. These include:
-A barn with an outdoor stage and banked grass seating area.
-An art museum
-Diverse and challenging playground areas for children
-Covered dance and picnic areas
-Concession, theatre set design and prop storage building
-Outdoor stage with professional lighting and sound system

Different churches hold their worship services each Sunday; and pony rides, craft sales, and other hourly entertainment are common place activities. On Wednesday evenings there are scheduled band concerts.

The Fargo Public Schools opera[illegible] the Trollwood Performing Arts School in the park [illegible]ry weekday in June through the first week in July. The highlight of this program of courses in dancing, acting, set design, costume design and other aspects of the performing arts is the presentation of the annual outdoor musical performance. There are also special weekly workshops, conducted by private citizens, that include:
-Palette Knife Painting
-Rosemaling
-Calligraphy
-Needlepoint
-Water Color
-Oil Painting

There are problems at Trollwood Park, but they are ones that the Park Board is working on. They include parking and the quantity of restroom facilities. There is a local shopping center a few blocks south of the park that is used for parking and then visitors are bused in the Park Districts double decker bus. The construction of new restroom facilities is planned and will soon become a reality because the voters recently approved a 4 million dollar park district capital improvement tax levy.

These realities are the result of the actions of a group of talented people that made great ideas change a piece of land into a summer happening that benefits many. A local service club provides most of the manpower to operate the daily operations of the park and a full time summer coordinator is hired by the park district to administer the programs.

TELE THE WORLD

Dr. Burton K. Olsen, Brigham Young University

Are you returning a "I'm returning your call" message for the fourth time? In your office are you frustrated in finding the best information or book on a subject of great interest? You say you can't afford the time and money to attend the convention or seminar in New York, London, or New Zealand? Tired of playing the same old person in chess or Trivial Pursuit? Want to find the best buy on your next new car, TV, or hydro-pump? Folks you need TELE-COMMUNICATIONS--the world in which computers communicate.

Unfortunately, after games, word processing, educational software, databases, comes the curiosity and/or desire for telecommunications. According to Paul Zurkowski, President of the Information Industry Association, a trade group established in 1969, there are approximately 2500 data bases available today. He notes that overall, industry sales were $15 billion in 1982 and that on-line businesses are growing at a 25-27% annual rate (1:103).

Major libraries in the world are now in the process of recording all of their knowledge into data banks. Furthermore, these separate data banks are starting to link together into larger data banks. Soon there will be a complete linkage of all libraries into one---a mega-mega library. Whew!! Bell Telephone, on the other hand, is working with optic fibre. As of yet, they don't know the speed at which data can be transmitted. However, they are now capable of transmitting the complete Encyclopedia in less than a second!! (2:25).

Telecommuting! Another trend setter!--Employees working at home or away from the office environment. Reports claim over 15 million people will be telecommuting by 1990. The study notes that most people telecommute because it gives them flexibility. Maternity leave and child care are other reasons "teleworkers" are involved. Corporations report increased productivity, less absenteeism, improved employee retention, and access to a larger labor pool. Telecommuters tend to be self-employed, highly educated adults who work most often in the morning and on weekday evenings. Workers tend to put in more working hours than they did before they telecommuted. Increased work productivity and quality and greater satisfaction with their jobs were also noted. The Oregon School Study Council has published a report on telecommunications and the handicapped--another exciting avenue.

R. R. Bowker Company has published The North American On-Line Directory 1985 ($75). The book lists 1511 data bases for public access from 785 publishers, associations, institutes, and other organizations. Cuadra Associates publishes a quarterly Directory of On-Line Data Bases, which lists 2600 on-line data bases from 376 vendors. Some of these data bases are gigantic information utilities offering vast libraries of data to thousands of subscribers. Most are modest Bulletin Board Systems (BBS's), low volume type operations based in spare rooms and basements in homes and offices around the country.

What do you need?? Your favorite computer, a modem and a software package to run everything. Listed below is a brief report on modems and software programs that allows for your telecommunicating.

MODEMS

The modem performs the basic job by converting the digital voice of the computer into the analogy tones of the telephone. There are dumb modems, smart modems, and super smart modems. You should select a modem that has the capability of a 300, 1200, to even a 9600 bit-per-second (bps) baud rate. Purchase one that permits a direct connection to the telephone and supports auto-dialing.

Macmodem

Macmodem from Microcom is a 1200-bps modem that can transmit data at a rate of 110, 300, 1200, or upgraded to 2400 bps. It sports seven LED indicators on the front. These reception and data-transmission indicators let you monitor operations. The unit has a speaker that provides audio feedback so you can detect errors, and busy signals during the critical call-connection phase. This is a well designed product. The documentation of the software package is comprehensive and well written. The overall strengths of this package rests with its ease of use, status-line indicators, auto-redial/answer features, and the user-defined functions. There is, however, a question with the compatability to other programs. The cost is about $599.

Apple Modem

The Apple Modem from Apple Computer, Inc., is available in either a 300 or 1200 pbs version. The 1200 version is capable of transferring information from 0-300 pbs in the low-speed mode and 1200 in the high-speed mode. You can control the modem by using keyboard commands. The Apple Modem and MacTerminal (software package) is the "standard package" system. The system is easy to use and provides emulation capabilities that other packages lack. If you need to emulate the VT-100 or IBM 3278, then this system is for you. Redialing is a missing feature. Cost for the modem is $495, with MacTerminal add another $99.

Cat System

The Cat System from Novation is another complete communications package. The Smart Cat-Plus model transmits data at the speed of 1200 bps. The on/off switch is placed conveniently in the front of the gray case, next to the ready and power lights. In absence of LED indicators to show the current condition of the system, Smart Cat has a ready light that flashes as data is being exchanged. The system provides keyboard commands for controlling the modem. The software package is sophisticated and the hardware, versatile. However, the software doesn't use the Macintosh capabilities. List price for the system is $499.

Hayes Modem

The Hayes Modem has been referred to as the "kingpin" in the modem field. Be sure it is the compatible model. Also spend the extra money and get one that has the 1200 bps.

SOFTWARE

The modem is the hardware and is a must; but a software program is almost a must necessity. Without it, the modem is just a hunk of metal, wire, and plastic. The software tells your modem what and how to do the various operations. There are a variety of software packages--simple to very sophisticated models.

Smart Com II
By Hayes Microcomputer Products, 5923 Peachtree Industrial Blvd., Norcross, Ga. $149. The software is designed for the Mac. Its design features make it one of the easiest programs to run or program. You do everything by pointing and clicking. There is an icon for every procedure. By using icons you can write Macros which command the Autopilot menu to enter them automatically just as if you had typed those commands. Point and click on the Pencil and you bring up a MacPaint screen. You can then transmit what's on the screen. A schematic drawing or whatever can be sent.

Red Ryder
This program requires a little more effort as compared to Smart Com II, but has many capabilities. This has a Binhex 4.0 thus making it simple to download, run, then go to a word processor for final touch-up. Red Ryder makes good use of the Mac's icons with a very easy effective way to write your log-ins. The Macro setup is more flexible than Smart Com II. This is a public domain program which carries a request of $40, most reasonable!

Mite
Mycroft Labs makes Mite one of the most sophisticated package communication programs so far available. Works well with almost any modem. Is user-friendly, but needs study to understand its capabilities. Cost is $_________.

In Touch
By Communications Software Masters, 3330 Hillcroft 3B, Houston, Tx. $149.95. Well written program capable of many styles of emulation. It supports text file and binary file transfers. It has 8 function (macro).

MacLine
By Touch Stone Software, 909 Electric Ave., Seal Beach, CA. 90740 $145. Terminal emulation allows for direct and modem connections. A unique program with good documentation.

MacTerminal
By Apple Computer, Inc., $99. Is probably used more by Mac users than any other. It is easy to use and is simple.

Habacom
No information is currently available on this software.

NETWORKS

The most common network companies are:

CompuServe
5000 Arlington Centre Boulevard
P. O. Box 20212
Columbus, Ohio 43220
Phone: 800-848-8990

Parent Company: H&R Block
Number of Subscribers: 110,000
Number of Services and Features Offered: 1,400
INVESTMENT INFORMATION. Ticker Retrieval; current day security quotes; historical data (stocks, bonds, mutual funds, government issues and options); Standard & Poor's descriptive financial information of 3000+ companies; analysis of industrial, transportation, utility, retail, banking and insurance companies; and Wall Street information resources. WORLDWIDE NEWS; DECISION SUPPORT. Demographic and sales potential information by zip, county, MSA, ADI and DMA for many types of businesses. BUSINESS COMMUNICATIONS. InfoPlex & E-COM, electronic mail facilities; electronic conferencing and professional forums. TRAVEL. CONSUMER SERVICES. Games, CB simulator of 72 channels; home shopping and banking; aviation, weather, and flight planning programs; educational resources, plus other categories including travel, financial, legal, medical and other professional services.
Registration Fee: $39.50.
Rates: Peak rate (5am-6pm, $12.50), off-peak (6am-5am) $6.00

The Source
1616 Anderson Road
McLean, Virginia 22102
Phone: 703-734-7500

Parent Company: Reader's Digest
Number of Subscribers: 60,000
Number of Services and Features: 1,200. ELECTRONIC MAIL. Send messages, teleconferencing, mailgrams, E-COM (U.S. Postal Service), and electronic bulletin boards. NEWS. News from UPI and other sources. FINANCES. Stock quotes, daily trading activities, historical and current data analysis of common stocks. RESEARCH AIDS. Article abstracts from leading business publications, employment services and research on any subject (fee charged). SHOPPING. Shop electronically via Comp-U-Store and The SOURCE. MEMBER PUBLISHING. Electronic newsletters and programs produced by fellow members. GAMES. MEMBER SERVICES.
Registration Fee: $10 monthly.
Rates: Peak Rates $20.75, off-peak rates $7.75.

Dow Jones News Retrieval Service
P. O. Box 300
Princeton, New Jersey 08540
Phone: 1-800-257-5114

Parent Company: Dow Jones
Number of Subscribers: 150,000
Number of Services and Features: 26 huge data bases in various categories: business and economic news, financial and investment services, Dow Jones quotes, general news and information mail service and customer newsletters.
Registration Fee: $75.00
Rates: Daytime use, $72; Nights and Weekends, $54.

EXAMPLES:

Teletext-5
KSL's experimental electronic news service.
Phone: 801-575-5911
Steps:
1. Hit RETURN key twice.
2. "Request" will appear. Type letters KSL strike return key.
3. "Username" will appear, type KSL again.
4. List of available news and information categories will appear.

BYU Library Services
1. Dial 378-4737
2. Hit (return) couple times
3. Request: BYULIB
4. VT52: "
5. -:NOTIS
6. -:LPBY

Compuserve
1. Dial: 801-521-2890
2. Host: +C
3. USER ID: 77770,101 (return)
4. PASSWORD: FREE-DEMO (return)
5. Go as directed

Roots-BBS
415-584-0697 (8 bit word, no parity, one stop bit, 300 and 1200 bps). Caters to genealogists and others interested in searching for ancestors and applying computers to such research. Most messages deal with finding the origins of surnames, although hardware and software help and a lot of BBS's is also available.

The Advocate BBS
303-223-1297 (7-bit word, even parity, 300 bps). Provides information on feeding, housing, health, and general pet care for parakeets, cats, guinea pigs, hamsters, and rabbits. A rather complete section of national and internationel general news about animals.

Noah's Ark
805-684-8020 (8 bit word, no parity, 1 stop bit, 1200 bps). Specializes in plant and animal breeding. Information on birds, fish, reptiles, and rare fruits and plants is available, as well as private electronic mail.

Prince
801-224-4048 (1200 bps)

BULLETIN BOARD SERVICE LISTINGS:

1984	713-778-9356	TX
Ace-Net	318-537-4085	LA
BBS Central	904-725-8925	FL
BYU Library	801-378-4737	UT
Citadel	805-967-0807	CA
CompuServe	801-521-2890	Utah/Ohio
Computer Patch	913-233-5554	KS
Computer People	504-851-1236	LA
Cutthroats	914-737-6770	NY
Fort Mill BBS	803-548-0900	NC
LA-MUG BBS	213-397-8966	CA
MOUSEHOLE	714-921-2252	CA
Mac International	803-788-8926	SC
MacLine	401-521-2626	RI
MacOrange	714-895-6041	CA
MacUSA BBS	301-587-2132	Maryland
Manzana BBS	605-665-5179	SD
Megrathea BBS	415-832-5586	CA
Microcom	617-769-9358	Mass.
Mini Apples Mac BBS	612-757-6180	Mn
Mouse Exchange BB	703-661-5173	VA
Mouse Hole BBS	515-224-1339	IO
Noah's Ark	805-684-8020	CA
North Bay BB	707-778-1874	CA
North Coast MUG's BBS	707-778-1874	CA
Northern Illinois AUG BBS	312-392-6232	Il.
PC-BBS Charlotte	704-537-1304	NC
PRINCE	801-224-4048	UT
RBBS-PC Northwest	503-233-6583	OR
Roots	415-584-0697	CA
SF Mac BBS	415-928-7205	CA, San F.
San Diego Mac BBS	619-462-6236	CA, San Diego
San Gabriel Valley BBS	818-355-7641	CA
Sierra Club	904-421-0152	FL
Stellar Empire	713-527-9161	TX
TKM's Mini BBS	213-432-2274	CA
The Advocate	303-223-1297	CO
The Bay BBS SF	415-775-2384	CA, San F.
The Village	305-857-2353	FL
Un of Oregon BBS	503-686-5416	OR
Washington Apple Pi ABBS	301-986-8085	Maryland

PROBLEMS

As you try telecommunicating you may encounter certain problems in making a viable connection. Some of the more common problems are: (1) Wrong Baud Rate, the other system will not lock the carrier. Probably only supports a 300 baud; therefore, switch to 300 and try again; (2) Wrong Data Format, you have locked carrier, but there is garbage coming in on the screen. Typically changing from a NO parity to EVEN parity will correct the problem.

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SHARPENING YOUR EDGE OF COMMUNICATION WITH THE USE OF VISUAL EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY

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Abstract

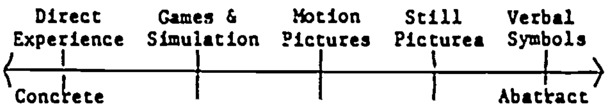
Good communication is essential to both expressing and understanding in a learning environment. Many tools a are available for our use and/or misuse. By understanding existing tools of communication and researching use of new technologies our communication edge is sharpened.

Introduction

Communication spans a wide spectrum in the field of learning and education. Visual, written, and audio communication techniques are commonplace. Visual presentation, the most common form of communication is a live talk made before an audience with the aid of visual material (Burden, 1971). This paper is assuming the importance of audio communication and thereby is placing emphasis on the visual opportunities of communications in the instructional setting.

Communication is the basic ingredient in effective learning and instruction. There is a direct correlation between how the concept is presented by the instructor and how long the concept is retained by the student (Dunn, 1972). There are a variety of visually oriented communication formats that are available for application in the instructional setting.

Fuhrmann and Grasher used the following diagram to show the relationship of the subgroupings of format to the content of material to be learned.



This communication model shows a process of ideation. Using the word communications as the catalyst the network is developed. Major descriptors of communication are recorded (circled). Each of these descriptors are then expanded by listing their component parts. After the model is complete, many facets of the catalyst, (in this example the word communication) are exposed. Many combinations are possible when matching subgroupings from the seven major descriptors.

This form of ideation has been used effectively as a problem solving tool in design disciplines for years. Recently, a similar approach is included in a book, Writing the Natural Way, by Gabriele Lusser Rico (1983).

This model was produced to identify the wide spectrum of communication. The main thrust of this paper is to explore the major descriptor-format.

Format is subdivided into the following subgroupings: written, graphic, verbal/nonverbal, and recorded (audio and visual).

Written

Instructions, reports, research results, novels, and short stories all display a different style of writing. Each has a purpose and follows different guidelines.

Graphic

This visual short-hand method summarizes, compares, outlines, and interprets information. Data can be more interesting and understandable when expressed in graphic form. A common use is the pie chart to show relationships of the parts to the whole.

Verbal/Nonverbal

It is easy to understand the importance of verbal communication. Therefore it follows that visual presentations are as successful as the audio support. Live or recorded, audio communication is an art in itself. The voice will be the first indicator of nervousness. The same rules of good voice inflection, pronunciation, volume, and cadence should be followed. Video and sound tracks can be produced separately and later combined. Emphasis, is placed on a well written script. Since good video programs will rely on audio support, the audio may be in the form of background music, sound effects, or professional narration. The non-verbal language, however, can be just as important when investigating behavioral interaction of people with their environment. Two contrasting examples of nonverbal communications identify behavior patterns that may be overlooked or taken for granted.

First, the non-verbal language associated with the concept of personal space can be magnified in a closely defined space - the elevator. Psychologist Layne Longfellow described common elevator etiquette: Face forward, fold hands in front, watch the numbers, don't talk to anyone you don't know, stop talking to people you know when someone you don't know enters, don't make eye contact, avoid touching anyone (Insider, 1981).

The second example showing behavior modification took place on Utah State University campus. Once there was a worn trail through the turf connected the campus bluebird cafe to the L.D.S. institute building. The sidewalk remained unused. Campus planning placed a small hedge across the path at the property line. The hedge was construed as a barrier but was interpreted as a hurdle. The path continued to be worn deeper in the ground. It was not until a strip of turf was removed from behind the hedge and replaced with slippery clay/ loam and then the use pattern changed. After the use pattern changed the turf was replaced.

Recorded

Visual communications follow a wide spectrum. It definitely overlaps graphic and audio communication. This section of the paper will investigate the mechanical equipment and its use in the production of visual communication media.

The most common classroom aids are overhead projection, 35 mm slides, 16 mm film, and video tape. Each piece of visual equipment has their own unique characteristics. However, any visual will:

- o Increase retention
- o Clarify and identify
- o Generate mood
- o Save time
- o Increase attention
- o Reinforce

Selecting and Using Media

Educational technology encompasses a variety of tools which can be used to aid in communication of ideas and concepts. It must be remembered that these various media are assistive devices and not substitutes for educational content. Kemp (1980), has summarized some of the contributions that media make to the educational process: a) essential facts can be presented; b) enrich content being presented; c) present experiences that the instructor cannot; and d) being immediacy into the instructional setting. These general attributes must be considered in relation to the instructors purposes and goals.

Furhman and Gasha (1983) have identified some useful considerations which should be kept in mind at the time of media selection:

1. No one medium is best for all purposes.
2. Media uses should be consistent with educational objectives.
3. Media users must familiarize themselves with the content of the media they choose.
4. Media must be appropriate for instructional format.
5. Media must be appropriate for student capabilities and learning.
6. Media are neither good nor bad simply because they are either concrete or abstract.
7. Media should be chosen objectively rather than on the basis of personal preference.
8. Physical conditions surrounding uses of media significantly affect the results obtained (pp. 225 & 226).

After the appropriate media have been selected the instructor apply the tool(s) in a professional manner. The process of initializing instructional media includes the preparation of oneself, the instructional setting, and the audience. In addition to operating the equipment and associated materials properly structured follow-up discussion should occur to determine the extent of learning on the part of the audience. As with all endeavors the appropriateness of the selected media must be evaluated.

Utilizing educational technology in a planned manner will serve to enhance the educational content being presented and subsequent learning on the part of the audience.

Visual Equipment

The following discussion of visual equipment will highlight the strengths and weaknesses of each for use as an educational tool.

The Overhead Projector

These are a very valuable instructional tool. Their distinct advantages include: a) they serve as a focus for audience attention; b) enable the instructor to face the audience all of the time; c) presentation material can be highlighted; d) transparencies are under the instructor's direct control; e) they are easy to use and maintain; f) transparencies are reusable and inexpensive; and g) the instructor is allowed to exercise creativity in preparation (either spontaneously or ahead of time).

Disadvantages of overhead transparency use are few. Transparencies must be skillfully prepared for effective communication of information and typically rather large projectors are needed for presentation.

The use of transparent overlays with translucent color allows a color build up that is powerful in analysis work. Ian McHarg (1971) uses the overlay system very effectively as a land planner.

Another effective use of the overhead as an instructional tool is to project a chart or diagram on the blackboard. When filling in the diagram, light from the projector highlights the chalk. Two cautions with the overhead would be to make sure the projector and screen are at right angles to minimize distortion and keep graphics simple with large amounts of text being avoided on one overhead.

Slide or Slide-Tape Programs

These have been the most commonly used form of color visual communication presentations in recent years. Slides have many advantages for use in instructional settings. Some of which are: a) they stimulate audience interest and provide a more concrete example of subject matter; b) the instructor can use familiar (local) examples for the clarification of general concepts; c) photographs and slides are relatively easy to prepare, use, and maintain; d) these materials are both adaptable and flexible to the needs of the instructor; e) audio materials may be used in conjunction with this medium; and f) this medium may also be sequenced and used as a packaged program.

Limitations of photographs and slides are few in number, but significant for the instructor. Slides may be incorrectly placed in the projection tray resulting in a backward/upside down image or inappropriate sequencing. Instructor produced photographs and slides requires some photographic skill, the qualit, of which will be demonstrated in the final produce.

Sophisticated equipment will allow two and three projection presentations. The dissolve units will allow multiple second dissolves, overlapping, and holding patterns.

A "rule of thumb" for slides will suggest that the closest viewers should be two times the width of the screen and the furtherest should be eight times (Burden, 1971). A second rule would be "if you can read the words on a 2x2 slide by holding it up to the light, the furtherest viewer will also be able to read the projected slide" (Fazio, 1981). An all word slide should be limited to ten words.

If the slide-tape form of audio visual presentation is desired, the cost of a 10 minute production professionally done will cost $8-12,000.00 (Klinenberg, 1983). If all of the slides are horizontally oriented the slide tape program can be coverted to VCR by use of a quality rear view screen. A slide tape program is most convenient but should be limited to one, two or three projectors. Proper synchronization is the key to success or failure.

Sixteen Millimeter Films

They are both a visual and audio medium which, when appropriately used, can be a significant instructional tool. By their vary nature films can be used to demonstrate motion and many of the associated environmental variables. This medium is appropriate for individual, as well as, small and large group instruction.

Some of the limiting factors in the use of films include: a) content is not easily adjusted to the specific needs of the instructor; b) most films are produced by others and therefore they don't typically show local scenes to highlight general concepts, and c) production, as well as, projection equipment is expensive.

A 10 minute production would run $18-30,000.00 (Klinenberg, 1983). The conversion to video is possible but the picture proportion is not comparative.

Video Cassette

Videotapes and equipment are relatively new as a classroom instructional device and videotape has great promise for enhancing the educational experience. Advantages of this medium are similar to those of film regarding motion. Additionally, because of the portability, simplicity and characteristics of operation videotape incorporates values of some of the previously mentioned media: a) videotape like other non-motion media, enable the instructor to use his/her creativity in the production of instructional mater .l, b) immed.acy is a distinct advantage in relating local scenes to general concepts (record with immediate playback capability), c) playback using instant replay and freeze action enable the instructor to exercise flexibility during actual presentations, d) videotapes can be produced by the instructor or purchased commercially, and e) this medium is most appropriate for individual or small group instruction.

Even with the exciting current and potential uses, videotape does have limitations to be considered. Although equipment size and costs are continually being reduced, they are both sensitive and moderately expensive. Without proper knowledge regarding elementary production techniques instructor produced videotape is subject to poor quality.

Popular Applications of Video Technology. By October of 1985 the sales of VCR equipment has passed the sales for all of 1984. It is estimated by cable news network that sales will reach 100,000 units a year. 1986 should see the advent of supar 8 VCR and slide projectors that will use video discs.

The VCR can be used but requires a substantial initial investment. A 10 minute presentation costs $12-18,000 for broadcast quailty production (Klinenberg, 1983). Three to four thousand dollars will provide a workship-lab quality production. The VCR is fast becoming a household item and is available at local libraries for use. The VHS format has become the consumer line of VCR while the Beta format has remained more in a production line. Since video tapes cannot be spliced like audio tapes, more expensive equipment is needed to edit, insert, and record video images. A Beta editing deck is essential for smooth production of a video presentation. The Beta I, II, III machines and the VHS machines are 1/2" but not interchangeable. It is possible to transfer a video from one format to another but each time the transfer is made each generation looses quality.

The future for video cassette recordings is not only for home entertainment but for small group presentation or workshop formats. As the price of equipment decreases and the availability of films increase the popularity of this form of communication is endless. New uses are being implemented daily. Cattle auctions are using video to buy and sell. Elimination of transporting cattle keeps the weight higher.

Many competitions for public service announcements (P.S.A.'s) are being transferred via video tapes by mail to the judges at different universities. Travel costs are drastically reduced.

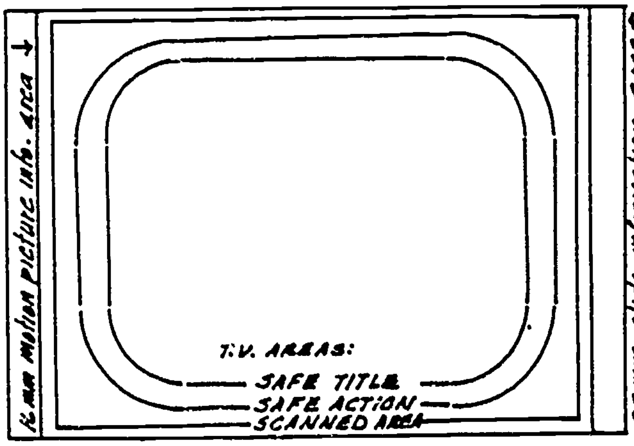
At Michigan State University a $13,000 grant is providing the opportunity to investigate the use of video bulletins for the Cooperative Extension Service.

The video bulletins and workshop sessions are made from a combination of slide presentations converted to video. Since the visual use of the VCR is by a television set or monitor, the production must work with the proportions of the screen.

It is becoming increasingly popular to provide tourism promotionals by transferring slide tape programs to video tape. With this transfer the question of proportion arises. We have all experienced t. elongation of the TV Movie of the Week that was originally at the movie theatre. The following graphic proportions are given to show the proportions and relationships of the common audio visual viewing areas.

Ratios of various visual media (view area) set the slide proportion at 2:3, video is 3:4, and overhead projection at 4.5. The television monitor has three areas of concern. First, the scan area is the area viewed of the camera in production. This entire image will not be seen on home screen. The second area is the safe action area. The viewer will see this area if the set is neither right or left justified (horizontal controlled) but centered. The third area, "safe title area" is the area that all titles, graphics etc., should be contained.

TELEVISION GRAPHICS PRODUCTION TEMPLATE
KODAK GUIDELINES



MINIMUM LETTER HEIGHT (lower case character less ascender or descender) should be 3/8" (9.5 mm)
MINIMUM LINE WEIGHT SHOULD BE A #1 PEN. (#1 pen was used for this graphic.)

With the proportions changing, a transfer from slide to video should impose the following:

1. A scene on a slide will either have a dark band across the top & bottom or have the flush top and bottom but the sides will be truncated.
2. Titles slides should be made to the 3:4 ratio and contained in the safe title area.
3. The best transfer will be through a good quality rear view screen or by "telecine method". Where the slide image is projected electronically.
4. Transfer should be done with a dissolve unit to give a smooth transition from slide to slide.

The video field is just starting to come to life and into focus. As the popularity increases and the prices of equipment still dropping new uses and formats will be used. In 1965 video taping equipment weighed over 1,000 pounds and cost $6,000. Today video equipment (portable) weighs less than 30 pounds and cost $1-2,000.

Conclusion

The art of communications, like most arts, has a process that establishes the parameters and define necessary skills for application (Wackman, 1978). The following process relates directly to the utilization of educational technology.

The first stage of the process is the BEGINNING AWARENESS STAGE. This usually produces an excitement to participate in communication exchanges.

Step two is the AWKWARD STAGE. This step gives confusion to the novice communicator and does not feel comfortable with the use of new communication tools. Practice is the key to unlock the constraints that are many times self imposed.

The CONSCIOUS SKILLFUL STAGE. Using skills feel more comfortable. The self doubts are being slowly eliminated. Communications are quite structured and not spontaneous.

The last stage is INTEGRATION. The reward associated with this stage is creativity. A feeling of ease gives rise to spontaneity, comfort and a creative use of the educational tools.

Every year new innovative techniques and hardware will be introduced on the consumer market. The opportunities for adapting these to the field of education will rest upon those professionals hired to teach. Applications will be as varied as there are grades in the formal educational program. It is incombent upon educators to work through the stages of educational technology utilization to that they creatively impact upon the educational process.

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BEST COPY AVAILABLE

THERAPEUTIC RECREATION PROGRAMMING FOR THE HEAD INJURED PATIENT

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Abstract

It is the purpose of this paper to provide an introduction to the head injured child/adolescent in order to give the reader a basic understanding of the type of patient treated on The John F. Kennedy Institute's Pediatric Rehabilitation Unit from April-December 1983. This information and the philosophies of treatment for head injury are crucial to the development of quality therapeutic recreation programs for this population.

Introduction

The John F. Kennedy Institute for Handicapped Children is a comprehensive service, training and research facility located in northeast Baltimore, Maryland (13). Formerly called the Children's Rehabilitation Institute, the J. F. Kennedy Institute was so named for the late U. S. President in 1964 and moved from its location in Reisterstown, Maryland, to Baltimore City in October of 1967.

The primary population served at the Kennedy Institute are children with learning disabilities, behavior problems, mental retardation, and physical handicaps. JFKH also houses a 40-bed inpatient hospital which includes an eight bed Pediatric Rehabilitation Unit for children with head and spinal cord injuries.

Within the scope of services provided for all in and out patients at Kennedy is the Child Life Department which directly addresses the emotional needs of hospitalized children and their adjustment to illness and disability. Included in the permanent nine person Child Life Staff at Kennedy is one Therapeutic Recreation Specialist who provides recreation and leisure services specifically to the Pediatric Rehabilitation Unit. This eight-bed unit treats children from infancy to 18 years for closed head trauma and spinal cord injuries. It has its own medical director and treatment team separate from the rest of the Institute. An important point to clarify is the fact that therapeutic recreation is a service provided under the umbrella of the Child Life Department to a specific patient population. The Kennedy Institute has no "Department of Therapeutic Recreation."

The Therapeutic Recreation Specialist is responsible conjointly to the director of Pediatric Rehabilitation. Though patients in Pediatric Rehabilitation are the first priority, the Therapeutic Recreation Specialist has additional duties shared with the Child Life staff that extends her responsibilities to the general floor population. This might include patient care meetings, incorporating appropriate patients into therapeutic recreation actifities, medical teaching rounds assistance in the outpatient clinic, and intradisciplinary education.

The goals of the Therapeutic Recreation Specialist and the Child Life Specialist are consistent insofar as they are concerned with the psychosocial factors that surround the child and family as a result of illness, handicapping conditions and injury. However, the Therapeutic Recreation Specialist places more emphasis on the assessment of leisure skills and attitudes, community functioning and discharge planning for appropriate reintegration of these patients into everyday life. The close contact between specialists in Child Life and Therapeutic Recreation served to enhance the programs because of the unique skills each possessed.

TREATMENT OF HEAD INJURY

The Statistics

Each year approximately 500,000 people in the United States are admitted to hospitals suffering closed head injury as a result of traumatic accidents (15:3). Many of these victims are left with handicapping conditions severe enough to preclude a return to normal life and are a growing concern to health care providers in this field.

The average age of the victims is under 30 years (15:3), with the highest incidence between 15 and 19 years, and the lowest incidence between 5 and 9 years. These injuries occur 2-3 times more in males than females (16:11). The most common cause of closed head injury is automobile accidents with assaults running second (16:13). The most significant factor present in the majority of cases is the use of alcohol and of men admitted for head injuries twice as many of them had been using alcohol as women admitted (16:14).

Causes other than auto accidents and assaults include falls, sports injuries, leisure interest accidents and gunshot wounds (8:11). "In a neorusurgical survey, the sports most likely to result in head injuries were horseback riding, rugby and soccer" (10:181).

Definitions of Head Injury

There is no one definition comprehensive enough to include what the term "closed head injury" implies. Some define it as:

1) Definite history of a blow to the head

2) Laceration of scalp or forehead

3) Altered consciousness, no matter how brief (8:2)

"But it is brain damage, actual or potential, that is the key to the medical interest in blows to the head, and the term 'cranio cerebral trauma' is a reasonable synonym for head injury" (8:2). One way to understand closed head injury is to distinguish it from a penetrating or war wound which actually breaks through tissue; i.e., bullet or knife wounds (10:180). "Penetrating injuries such as result from bullet wounds, many cause discrete clinical syndromes according to the location and the extent of the missile's path. Quantatitave measures can be made of the e xtent of brain damage" (10:180). In comparison,

> "closed head injury is seen most frequently when the head is in motion, such as in motor vehicle accidents and falls. The injury tends to be

more diffuse because of a contrecoup effect, i.e. tissue damage occurs at the site of impact and also occurs at the opposite side. Because there is not penetration, diffuse injury may lead to diffuse swelling, which results in increased cranial pressure. Unconsciousness is seen more frequently in closed head injury than with penetrating injuries" (10:180).

Though consensus of definition of closed head injury may be difficult to reach, it is the statistics and factors present that give us a comprehensive understanding of what those injuries are and do. Important to our discussion and the Kennedy experience is that "closed head injury is the most frequent type of head injury in children and adolescents" (10:79). Because the brain of the younger child is physiologically different from that of an older child,

> "the healing process and the reaction to therapeutic measures will also be different. The younger the person (beyond the first five years) the better the chance of the recovery process. There is no clear demarcation from age to age, except to say that a child's outcome is usually better than an adult's outcome given injury of comparable severity" (10:180).

Course of Treatment

A common course of events for the head injured patient from accident to discharge can be divided into four stages: I) Emergency Medical Care, II) Stabilization and Life Maintenance, III) Rehabilitation and IV) Discharge and Follow-up Care. An understanding of stages I and II, before the patient reaches the rehabilitation setting, will help one understand the complexities of the rehabilitation process for those patients.

I. Emergency Medical Care. An accident occurs and paramedics arrive on the scene. In the state of Maryland, paramedics refer to the Maryland Institute for Emergency Medical Services System (MIEMSS) protocol to decide whether the patient needs intensive care (10:185).

> "The MIEMSS consists of a Shock Trauma Unit at the University of Maryland (in Baltimore) for critically ill patients and nine other statewide centers for critically ill patients and for patients with specific problems. For example, one hospital is designated a burn center and another is a central nervous system spinal cord center. Johns Hopkins Hospital (physically adjoining JFKI) is designated as a pediatric trauma center. These centers agree to follow standards of care in use at the Shock Trauma Unit and their status is reviewed by MIEMSS every six months. One of the goals of the system is to get patients into the operating room from 15-20 minutes from the time of arrival at the hospital. The child is then admitted to an emergency room or trauma center for the crucial "golden hour" or hyperacute stage. Emphasis here is given to acute medical care such as "resuscitation and reestablishment of physical homeostasis" (10:185-1[illegible]).

A severe injury to the head presenting with an unconscious patient requires the monitoring of and attention to many aspects of care. They may include intubation or tracheostomy, blood circulation, fluid and nutritional status, hematology disorders, post-traumatic epilepsy, intracranial pressure, brain shift and herniation, brain water and edema, hydrocephalus and hematoma (8:45).

The Glasgow Coma Scale is recognized as the tool with which one determines the depth of coma in a head injured individual, and is used at this point as a prognostic tool. There are three independent features of the comatose patient that the scale observes. They are eye opening, motor response and verbal performance" (8.77-79). The scale itself "enables degrees and types of coma to be defined in descriptive terms, without reference to supposed anatomical sites of dysfunction or to levels that depend on the concurrance of certain degrees of responsiveness with other features..." (8.77). Some "early signs that have been implicated as leading to poor prognosis include a Glasgow Coma Scale of 3 or 4, presence of multiple injuries, lack of spontaneous ventilatory effort, and the presence or appearance of a mass lesion" (10:190).

Glasgow Coma Scale

	Examiner's Test	Patient's Response	Assigned Score
Eye Opening	Spontaneous	Opens eyes on own	4
	Speech	Opens eyes when asked in a loud voice	3
	Pain	Opens eyes when pinched	2
	Pain	Does not open eyes	1
Best Motor Response	Commands	Follows simple commands	6
	Pain	Pulls examiner's hand away when pinched	5
	Pain	Pulls a part of body away when exominer pinches patient	4
	Pain	Flexes body inappropriately to pain (decorticate posturing)	3
	Pain	Body becomes rigid in an extended position when examiner pinches victim (decerebrate posturing)	2
	Pain	Has no motor response to pinch	1
Verbal Response (Talking)	Speech	Carries on a conversation correctly and tells examiner where he is, who he is, and the month and year	5
	Speech	Seems confused or disoriented	4
	Speech	Talks so examiner can understand victim but makes no sense	3
	Speech	Makes sounds that examiner can't understand	2
	Speech	Makes no noise	1

II. Stabilization and Life Maintenance. At some point in stage I, medical stabilization begins to occur and the child may be admitted to a regular hospital floor. It is at this point that the degree and length of coma become critical factors in prognosticating the child's recovery. The longer and deeper the coma, the poorer the prognosis. Not all children with head injuries have long periods of coma; others do. Late effects of head injury and coma during this period may include irreversable brain damage, hydrocephalus and post-traumatic epilepsy (8:39-40).

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"Other conditions which may require constant medical attention carry over from the acute phase such as monitoring of breathing devices (trach/vent), diet control, and possible infection at the site of intracranial pressure monitoring devices. It is the goal of the medical team at this point to achieve medical stability of the trauma situation and assess the effects of the residuals of injury for appropriate placement in a rehabilitation setting" (8:40).

III. Rehabilitation. After medical stabilization has occurred and threat to life has passed, the patient is then placed in a rehabilitation facility. The course of rehabilitation is complex and requires the expertise of many specialists. They include physicians, nurses, physical therapists, occupational therapists, speech and hearing specialists, clinical psychologists, recreation therapists, educational psychologists, dieticians, social workers, and family counselors. The need for a well planned and staffed rehabilitation program for these patients usually takes the form of a team approach by the above disciplines.

"The team goals revolve around the following objectives:
*Restoring old skills (for damaged parts)
*Teaching new skills (for undamaged parts)
*Retrieving lost ground (in the area of memory)
*Influencing attitudes of the patient, family and therapeutic team" (8:267).

When the child is admitted for rehabilitation, the team immediately looks at the severity of the injury (including degree and depth of coma) and the patient's age. The , individually, team members conduct interviews with the patient, family, or both, to assess function in their respective areas of concern. The recreation therapist, for example, may take a leisure history of past skills and interests in order to determine appropriate activity planning. If the patient is comatose, this history is obtained from family members. Or, the nutritionist may recommend appropriate food intake for the patient. A troublesome behavior that may occur during recovery is hyperphagia, or food seeking that is often aggressive in nature and accompanies an insatiable appetite (10:195-199).

A patient may be admitted to a rehabilitation unit in one of eight stages of recovery from coma. These stages are summarized below from the Rancho Los Amigos Coma Scale.

I. No Response

II. Generalized Response
Reacts inconsistently and non-purposefully to stimuli in a non-specific manner

III. Localized Response
Reacts specifically, but inconsistently to stimuli

IV. Confused - Agitated
Patient is in a heightened state of activity with severely decreased ability to process information

V. Confused, Inappropriate Non-Agitated
Patient appears alert and is able to respons to simple commands fairly consistently

VI. Confused - Appropriate
Patient shows goal directed behavior, but is dependent on external input for direction

VII. Automatic - Appropriate
Patient appears appropriate and oriented but has shallow recall of what he is doing

VIII. Purposeful and Appropriate
Patient is alert and oriented, is able to recall and integrate past and recent events and is aware of and responsive to his culture" (15, Appendix B).

As noted before, defining duration and extent of coma is important in the rehabilitation process of these patients. The Rancho Los Amigos Scale allows the treatment team to continually assess the patient's recovery from coma. Often the end of coma is determined by one patient's ability to follow simple, one step commands such as "squeeze my hand."

Another important factor in the rehabilitation process is called "post-traumatic amnesia" (PTA) and refers to memory deficits a patient exhibits after injury. Disorientation to time, person and place occurs. In other words, the patient does not know when it is, who he is, or where he is. The recovery from coma has correlative points in the recovery of memory and orientation function. "The end of post-traumatic amnesia marks a crucial stage in the recovery process and that is parallelled by the restoration of other mental skills" (8:257).

Residuals from closed head injury that have to be de dealt with during the rehabilitative process are extensive. Physical impairments such as paralysis, weakness and amputation can result from a traumatic accident and subsequent brain injury. Motor impairments such as spasticity, ataxia, contractures, hemiparesis and tremors are also common" (16:24).

"The physical therapist and occupational therapist work to remediate residual motor deficits resulting from severe closed head injury. The usual division of labor is such that the physical therapist attends to rehabilitation of the lower extremities, the attainment of ambulation, and the performance of gross motor activities. The occupational therapist concentrates on fine motor and visual perceptial skills and works for return of upper extremity functioning. Occupational therapy also focuses on attainment of functional skills" (10:199).

Sensory impairments can cause neurological problems and difficulties in visual/spatial perceptions (16:24-5). Snesory and motor impairments can drastically alter communication skills and may cause apraxia, aphasia, dyslexia and dysgraphia (16:26-27). As a result, cognitive areas are also affected. The speech therapist may work on language deficits, and expressive and receptive language problems. The educational psychologist obtains past school records and works with the family, patient and school for an appropriate placement after discharge. The clinical psychologist assists in cognitive assessment of developmentally appropriate skills in many areas. Nursing is involved in every aspect of care.

It is the deficits in the mental and psychosocial area that perhaps present the greatest challenge to recovery for the patient and health care professional.

"The most consistent consequence of a head injury is some disorder of mental functioning, either temporary or permanent. After mild injury (concussion), it has been found that there is a measurable impairment of information processing for 2-3 weeks; this combines with various somatic sequalae to produce the frequently encountered post-concussional syndrome, already discussed. After more severe injury, associated with coma of some hours duration, the patient remains in a state of disordered consciousness for many hours or days, for which he is subsequently amnesic. In patients whose post-traumatic amnesia has exceeded three weeks, it is almost always possible to detect impairment of performance on some test of cognitive function, even six months after injury, and some degree of measurable deficit is often permanent. More frequent than altered intellectual function are changes in personality; althouth less readily recorded or measured, these can be at least as disabling" (8:289).

Some mental and psychological disabilities that are potential to the head injured population are massive and include the following:

- Long and short term memory deficits
- Decreased obstraction and learning abilities
- Poor judgment and quality control
- Poor initiative
- Difficulty in generalization
- Short attention span
- Distractibility
- Reduced motor speed
- Poor self image
- Depression
- Denial of consequences or disability
- Dependancy (16:27)
- Aggressiveness

The culmination of the effects of the aforementioned dysfunctions are found dramatically in the area of social functioning. Of the disorders that result from psychological and physical impairment "social withdrawal, loss of leisure skills, need for structure, and dependence occur with highest frequency" (16:30).

Crucial to the recovery of a head injured patient is a stable and supportive family and social system (10:213). Psychological disabilities resulting from head trauma can also affect family members, friends, school and work associates (16:30).

"Consider the reaction of the family: disbelief, grief, mourning, depression, false hope, overestimation and underestimation of capabilities, guilt, disinterest, rejection, and so forth. The consequences of those reactions may include restriction to a custodial role, alienation, infidelity, divorce, sibling regression and rivalry, reversal of child-parent role, and behavioral-emotional problems in children. Society may react in ignorance, misunderstanding, or apathy to the "crazy" behaviors of both victim and family. Thus, society itself becomes "disabled": impaired in its attempts toward restoration of family and victim. Moreover, society's overreactions to aggressive or inappropriate behaviors may provoke additional problems that might well have been avoided" (16.30).

The psychiatrist and social work consult on family systems and emotional problems which must be treated. The recreation therapist is concerned with all of these issues because they all impact on the patients leisure functioning.

"Therapeutic recreation is one service area, or process, especially in rehabilitation, medical and mental health facilities, which can offer much to facilitate client rehabilitation. Generally, therapeutic recreation's role within rehabilitation is that of a helping process and can be viewed as being relevant to the rehabilitation process in terms of how well it meets the clients' needs. In a general sense, meeting client needs is the criteria for relevancy of therapeutic recreation or any other area of the rehabilitation process" (19:28).

Relevancy to the head injured patient's needs is, indeed a crucial goal to programming therapeutic recreation activities for one reason. A patient recovering from a comatose state may change daily. Therefore, activities need to be continually reassessed for their therapeutic components and appropriateness to the patient's stage of recovery.

Equally as important is the process which occurs during rehabilitation in terms of therapeutic recreation. Frye and Peters state that therapeutic recreation is:

"... a process which utilizes recreation services for purposive intervention in some physical, emotional and/or social behavior to bring about a desired change in that behavior and to promote the growth and development of the individual" (5).

In fact, when dealing with head injured patients, the therapeutic recreation specialist must consider intervention in all three areas - physical, emotional and social - in order to prepare the patient for reintegration into the community. The process which the therapeutic recreation specialist ideally takes the head injured patient through is summarized in the Philosophical Position Statement by NTRS:

"The purpose of therapeutic recreation is to facilitate the development, maintenance, and expression of an appropriate leisure lifestyle for individuals with physical, mental, emotional or social limitations. Accordingly, this purpose is accomplished through the provision of professional programs and services which assist the client in eliminating barriers to leisure, developing leisure skills and attitudes, and optimizing leisure involvement. Therapeutic recreation professionals use these principles to enhance clients' leisure ability in recognition of the importance and value of leisure in the human experience.

"Three specific areas of professional services are employed to provide this comprehensive leisure ability approach toward enabling appropriate leisure lifestyles:

1) Therapy/Rehabilitation
2) Leisure Education
3) Recreation Participation" (12, Appendix AA)

The early stages of recovery are spent designing activities in the therapeutic range. They may be activities with goals encouraging orientation, motor skills, and fundamental decision making skills. During the middle stages, it is appropriate to encourage independence in activities by providing opportunities for learning and developing positive attitudes towards what patients can do relative to their disabilities. Finally, helping the patient and family identifity recreation programs that meet their special needs is a goal of the later and discharge stages of recovery.

IV. Discharge and Follow-up Care

All disabilities that occur as a result of head injury are of concern to the treatment team post-discharge. In fact, it is the primary goal of the team to ready these patients for discharge from the moment they enter the rehabilitation setting.

Readying these patients for reintegration into the community is the single most challenging goal the team members face. Medical concerns are monitored by the physical and assessed to be stable under recommended management. The educational psychologist arranges appropriate school placement either with the patient's original school setting or new facilities. Often this involves members of the team meeting with the school officials to design an appropriate make up and continuing education program. Arrangements for outpatient physical and occupational therapy are made. Appropriate recreation/leisure resources are identified At Kennedy, patients return on a pre-arranged schedule (3 months - 6 months - 12 months post) to Pediatric Rehabilitation's Outpatient Clinic. During this full day clinic, the patient meets with each therapist/discipline to assess progress in problem areas and make recommendations for continued follow-up care.

Therapeutic Recreation Goals

The effects of disabilities from head injury must be considered when designing recreation programs for these individuals. Whether they be motor, sensory, cognitive or psychosocial, the need for individualized and sensitive programming on the basis of the patient's need is imperative to successful rehabilitation in the area of leisure skills.

What follows are eight goals of the Therapeutic Recreation Program designed for the treatment of head and spinal cord injured patients. With each is an explanation of how the program attempted to meet the particular goal.

1) To minimize the emotional effects of hospitalization by providing an environment of support and security.

On the Rehab Unit, every effort was made to maintain as safe and secure approach to our patients as possible. Family involvement in recreation activities, particularly on group outings, was always encouraged. Adjusting to the immediate environment of the Rehab Unit was made easier by allowing patients to bring familiar belongings from home. For some this meant posters and music, for others dolls and stuffed animals. Usually always pictures of family and friends were included along with cards received from well wishers. Bedspreads, pillows, and pillow cases donned a myriad of themes. Whatever their corner of the Unit, it represented what was uniquely special to the world of that patient.

It was also important that the patients be given some sense of control in a situation that often seemed so out of control. This was accomplished by giving each patient the opportunity for designing and choosing many of the individual activities he was to do.

These choices were monitored by the therapeutic recreation specialist and, as needed, the treatment team to assure appropriate, successful and therapeutic experiences.

Finally, the ability to provide support for these patients and their families rested upon the team members' comfort with themselves and their knowledge of how to deal with the head injured patient. This included how to talk with the patients and having an understanding of what brain injury does. Interpersonal skills were crucial to helping the patient and family through the newness and often stressful phases of the rehabilitation process.

2) To assess each child upon admission for functional play and leisure activities to serve as a basis for therapeutic recreation program planning.

Upon admission the Therapeutic Recreation Specialist interviews each patient to determine his/her admitting functional level. If the patient is oriented enough to verbalize and follow directions, he/she is often asked about past leisure and recreation activities. The majority of patients, however, come to Kennedy unable to do this and it is in the parent/family interview that the most valuable information is obtained on leisure histories. The tool that was used to assess leisure histories was the Leisure Activities Blank (LAB) designed by Dr. George McKechnie.

On the basis of these initial interviews, an admission summary is required which includes present observations, leisure history, developmental assessment (if appropriate), problem areas and treatment goals, plans and approach. An individualized treatment plan for each individual patient is considered when planning activities for the Rehab Unit. (See Appendix M)

3) To provide maximum socialization and habilitation of each child by providing activities that allow the patient to establish constructive self-concepts and enhance self-confidence.

This goal was met primarily by providing group activities which placed patients in social situations. Within the Institute this might include birthday and discharge parties, group activity nights, craft projects, cooking activities, or an outpatient lunch program where inpatients at Kennedy meet outpatients who return for an outpatient clinic visit.

Providing activities that allowed patients to establish constructive self-concepts and confidence also meant introducing them back into the community as soon as possible with positive experiences. The goals of the activities were not only socialization, but providing these patients with a sense of belonging to the community at large again. Community activities at Kennedy included:

- Swimming at a specially designed pool at Baltimore's League for the Handicapped. (Appendix P)
- Duckpin bowling at Loch Raven Fiarlanes where bowling ramps were provided.
- Movies at community theatres.
- Shopping trips to Baltimore's Inner Harbor.
- Picnics and fishing trips to area parks.
- Visit to Pumpkin patch and Cider Mill at Halloween.
- Baltimore Orioles Baseball Games.
- Howard County Fair
- Other activities, as appropriate.

4) To provide individualized and group activities with individualized treatment goals.

The ITP or individualized treatment plan designed upon admission for each patient was used when deciding upon all activities for the Unit. As the patients changed and progressed, so did the ITP.

Individualized treatment sessions were designated as 1/2-1 hour per day per patient. During these times, the Therapeutic Recreation Specialist and patient might work on a craft project, go for a walk, play a game, listen to music, whateverwas appropriate for the patient's stage of recovery. However simple the activity may have seemed, the therapeutic value was always a consideration. Simply taking a walk or wheelchair ride, for example, might pose great challenges to a patient a change of environment and contact with others outside the Unit.

Group activities on a structured basis were provided three times weekly for anywhere from 2-4 hours. These were two evening group activities (usually one in the Institute and one in the community) on Tuesday and Thursdays, and a Wednesday morning community outing.

5) To foster an environment which encourages the development of healthy leisure skills and activities.

This area of treatment is perhaps the most sensitive because when dealing with a variety of people - patients, family, and staff - there may be varying opinions as to what is "healthy" or "therapeutic". Encouraging the development of healthy leisure skills and attitudes was a challenge when the patient's pre-traumatic history showed poor adjustment in leisure functioning. It was then up to us and supporting team staff to provide new and successful leisure experiences for patients during recovery that might serve as a basis for future activities. We often found parents supportive of our efforts and eager to take part.

6) To implement, reinforce, and aid in the planning of the overall treatment program as designed by team members.

The responsibilities which the Therapeutic Recreation Specialist has to the Rehabilitation Treatment Team are as follows:

*Pediatric Rehab Team Meeting - A one-hour weekly meeing to discuss possible new patients and unit business, and to provide continuing education by staff members and guest speakers.

*Pediatric Rehab Rounds - A one-hour weekly meeting to report on inpatient progress, goal setting and plans for continuing treatment.

*Steerings - A one-hour team meeting upon admission and discharge of patients to design and recommend treatment and discharge plans.

*Psychosocial Meeting - A one-hour weekly meeting with the staff psychiatrist to discuss specific psychosocial and emotional management problems on the Unit.

*Pediatric Rehab Outpatient Clinic - A once monthly clinic during which the Therapeutic Recreation Specialist meets with patients to assess post-discharge leisure activities and adjustment. This also includes a lunch hour for patients with the TRS in the Institute's activity room known as "The Greenhouse".

*Case Management - Participating in a system whereby each patient is assigned a case manager upon discharge. It is the case manager's responsibility to coordinate discharge planning and correspondence to patient and family.

*Interdisciplinary Education - Participation in workshops by different disciplines.

*Volunteer Program - Providing and administering a volunteer program to assist in carrying out overall goals for Rehab Patients.

7) To inform and advise parents about appropriate leisure activity planning after discharge.

In the case of a child injured in a traumatic accident with subsequent head injury the residuals may be massive. As explained earlier, they may include physical and motor impairments, sensory and cognitive disabilities, and emotional and personality changes. No matter what combination of the above, it is important to remember that the parents, family or primary caregiver will ultimately be responsible for the patient's management upon discharge.

Advising parents about appropriate activity planning may take on a wide scope of recommendations and community resource referrals. Depending upon the child's age and severity of impairment, it may include suggesting ways to structure activities in the home or providing them with community resource referrals. It may also include how to reintegrate peers back into the patient's life or how to encourage independence in leisure activities.

8) To provide leisure education services to the patient and family for post-discharge planning of leisure activities.

Though similar to goal number seven, it was the intent of this goal to provide patients and families with opportunities to plan and carry out leisure activities independently, yet under the planning supervision of the staff. This might include expanding the patient and family's knowledge of community recreation services. It might also include opportunities for creative expression of leisure interests.

EXCELLENCE IN PRACTICUM SETTINGS

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Abstract

The selection of practicum agencies for students is, at best, a gamble. Students and educators make every effort to insure that they will select an agency that will provide the types of experiences that are desired for the participant. In this age of excellence, each student and educator should seek out experiences that provide opportunities for excellence. This paper suggests some characteristics of excellent park and recreation agencies and what a student should look for.

Introduction

Excellence in parks and recreation curriculum extends beyond the classroom. As an educator who has returned to the practitioner ranks as a municipal administrator I have had the opportunity to observe students in a practicum setting from two perspectives. In this paper I will use this unusual perspective as a foundation for my remarks.

The practicum setting has long been recognized as an integral component of a student's academic preparation. Educational institutions and the Society of Park and Recreation Educators have attempted to quantify those components that constitute a desirable practicum experience. In some cases educational institutions have attempted to certify organizations that they perceive could provide a desired experience.

Recreation agencies have also been involved in attempts to quantify practicum experiences. Most agency practicum manuals have been developed with the intent of defining a student's experience at a particular agency. The primary purpose of most of these manuals is to provide potential practicum students with a realistic expectation of their potential experiences.

All of these efforts at quantification of the practicum experience have been commendable. Quantification, however, does not insure a quality experience. If a curriculum's goal is to provide an "excellent" experience for the student, it involves more than attempts at quantification.

The purpose of this paper is to identify agency attributes that a Park and Recreation curriculum and student should address when seeking a practicum placement. The list is by no means intended to be all-inclusive. It will serve as a minimal introduction to excellence in agencies. A brief, but hopefully stimulating introduction.

Excellence

Excellence is a concept more than it is a definition. Definitions do not seem appropriate when attempting to identify the presence of excellence. The word excellence may suffer from the same divergent conceptualizations that have plagued attempts to arrive at a common definition of leisure. I choose to use the definition provided in the report prepared by the National Commission on Excellence in Education when it defines excellence as "performing at the outer limits of one's capacities."

Accepting the above definition places an emphasis on the agency to provide a setting where individual excellence can occur. The presence of individuals striving for individual excellence within an organization provides the impetus for organizational excellence.

Peters and Austin (1985) suggested that achieving excellence "involves giving everyone in the organization the space to innovate, at least a little bit." Peters and Waterman (1982) called this simultaneous loose-tight properties, "Organizations that live by the loose-tight principle are on the one hand rigidly controlled, yet at the same time allowed, indeed, insist on autonomy, entrepreneurship and innovation from the rank and file.

As administrators we strive to create an environment where individuals are nurtured and encouraged to perform at the outer limits of their abilities. As educators we seek organizations with such an environment as the ideal for the placement of practicum students. What are some of the characteristics to be sought out?

Leadership Vision

Leadership is a key. Bennis and Nanus (1985) have stated, "effective leadership can move organizations from current to future status, create visions of potential opportunities for organizations, instill within employees commitment to change and instill new cultures and strategies in organizations that mobilize and focus energy and resources." Burns spoke of "transforming leadership" as in leadership that builds on man's needs for meaning, a leadership that creates institutional purpose (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). Peters and Waterman (1982) found, much to their surprise, "that associated with almost every excellent company was a strong leader (or two) who seemed to have a lot to do with making the company excellent in the first place." Peters and Austin (1985) indicated that, "leadership means vision, cheerleading, enthusiasm, love, trust, verve, passion, obsession, consistency, the use of symbols, paying attention..., creating heros at all levels, coaching, effectively wandering around, and numerous other things."

Leadership is the essence of providing direction, motivating, and living a vision. In Proverbs Solomon records that "where there is no vision, the people perish." Diebold (1984) reinforces the need for vision, "leadership in its most basic sense - vision coupled with the ability to communicate and educate - is essential to any great undertaking." Kanter (1983) reinforced this notion pointing out that "leadership involves creating larger visions and engaging people's imaginations in pursuit of them."

Bennis and Nanus (1985), in their work Leaders reviewed some 90 leaders in industry, government and the arts. They found four common strategies used by all of the studied leaders. One of the strategies was titled "attention through vision." "The vision these various leaders conveyed seemed to bring about a confidence on the part of the employees, a confidence that instilled in them a belief that they were capable of performing the necessary acts." A vision is as important to an organization as it is to an individual. A vision leads an organization to its appropriate place in society. When the leader conveys a clear sense of purpose about a desired future state "individuals are able to find their own roles both in the organization and in the society of which they are a part." (Bennis and Nanus, 1985)

In summary, when looking at the leadership of an organization it owuld be appropriate to ask the following questions:

* Does the leadership provide a direction or purpose for the members of the organization?

* Are members of the organization able to articulate

where they are going, why they are going in that direction, and what outcomes do they anticipate?

* Does the direction the organization and its members are going have consistency from individual to individual?

Attitudes and Values

A second characteristic to look for within agencies striving for excellence are attitudes. What are the attitudes of the members of the organization towards their profession, their current job, towards participants, towards their fellow workers.

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) outlined attitudes as "a learned pre-disposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object". Attitudes reflect one's beliefs and beliefs are the fundamental building blocks of attitudes. Beliefs can be altered only as experiences impact upon them and result in change of attitudes.

If attitudes are learned as defined by Fishbein and Ajzen, then the presence or absence of similar attitudes within an organization may reflect whether the organizations members have accepted a vision for the organization. It may reflect the ability of the leaders to communicate a vision.

How important are attitudes and beliefs to the organization? Consider the comments of Thomas Watson Jr. (1963), founder of IBM, from his book A Business and Its Beliefs. "I firmly believe that any organization, in order to survive and achieve success, must have a sound set of beliefs on which it premises all of its policies and actions. Next, I believe that the most important single factor in corporate success is faithful adherence to those beliefs. And, finally, I believe if an organization is to meet the challenge of a changing world, it must be prepared to change everything about itself except those beliefs as it moves through corporate life".

The presence or absence of values are reflected in how an organization operates. Peters and Waterman noted that in excellent companies they had studied, each had a CEO who had articulated a goal that used only a few words to summarize what was unique and special about the company, one all employees could focus on and use as a guideline, one the company stood for.

Peters and Austin (1985) have collected a series of examples illustrating the importance of managers beliefs about people. The way management treats its people is reflected in the attitudes of its people's dealings with people outside the organization. "The enemy hides in our minute-to-minute behavior - and in our language". "A Person's Rights include: the right to be needed, the right to understand, the right to be involved, the right to a conventional relationship [with the company], the right to affect one's own destiny, the right to be accountablé, and the right to appeal". Peters and Waterman (1982) have found the "dominant beliefs of the excellent companies are also narrow in scope, including just a few basic values.

1. A belief in being the 'best'.

2. A belief in the importance of the details of execution, the nuts and bolts of doing the job well.

3. A belief in the importance of people as individuals.

4. A belief in the superior qualities and service.

5. A belief in that most members of the organization should be innovators and its corollary, the willingness to support failure.

6. A belief in the importance of informality to enhance communication"

Attitudes and beliefs of organizations are reflected in their members. Are the attitudes exhibited indicative of people who care, of people who are committed, of people who have a sense of purpose and direction? If attitudes are not apparent, is the organization's members and leaders attempting to develop and change attitudes. Can the organization's members articulate their beliefs and their organizations beliefs?

Innovation

A third characteristic that should be looked for in Park and Recreation organizations is innovation. Innovation is the presence of something new. Kanter (1983) saw it as a process of "bringing any new, problem solving idea into use... The generation, acceptance and implementation of new idea processes, products or services".

In order for innovation to be present the organization must both tolerate and encourage people to work outside as well as within the system. Peters and Austin (1985) contended that "innovation in business (and non-business) is highly unpredictable and the context and configuration must be predicated on uncertainty and ambiguity". Drucker (1985) perceived unexpected success as not only an opportunity for innovation, but a demand to innovate in that area. "It forces me to ask, what basic changes are now appropriate for this organization in the way it defines its business?"

Innovation is the process of looking, seeking and searching for the expected and unexpected. For seizing the opportunity when it appears. For experimenting with the unsure and untried. It involves failure and the ability to learn from it. It involves trying and persistence. <u>It is mostly a basis for action.</u>

Innovation may or may not be highly discussed in an organization. It is present, but it is present because management has willed it, tolerated it, encouraged, it and recognized those who were involved in it - both successfully and unsuccessfully.

Are there evidences in the park and recreation agency that innovation has been encouraged and rewarded? What has the organization done new in the last year? Last two years? Last five years? Are programs, procedures, and policies static or constantly under review and change? Does the organization have an evaluation process that questions the effectiveness or programs and participant responses to those programs? In short, is the organization forward or rearward looking?

Customer Orientation

A customer orientation is requisite in any organization seeking excellence. Howard and Crompton (1980) have called a customer orientation a "marketing orientation." This is, it 'attempts first to determine what client groups want, and then to provide services which meet those wants."

A park and recreation organization ultimately exists to serve its participants. It grows by seeking out opportunities to serve actual versus perceived demands of the public. Drucker (1985) called this an incongruity between perceived and actual reality, "The incongruity is clearly visible to the people within or close to the market or process; it is directly in front of their eyes. Yet it is often overlooked by the insiders, who tend to take it for granted". (57) He reminds the reader that the purpose of any product or program is to satisfy a participant. Further, "The incongruity within a process, its rhythm or its logic, is not a very subtle matter. Users are always aware of it". (68) Naisbitt and Aburdene (1985) have suggested that the appropriate role of support staff in any an organization is to serve those who serve the customers.

Peters and Waterman (1982) suggested that being close to the customer was essential in any organization seeking excellence. "In observing the excellent companies and specifically the way they interact with customers, what we found most striking was the consistent presence of obsession". The emphasis upon the customer is greater than any other orientation in an organization. This is not to suggest that the other areas, such as quality, technology, and so forth, can be ignored, they too must receive an emphasis. As organizations focus on the customer the other areas follow naturally.

Peters and Austin (1985) discussed "TDC" - thinly disguised contempt, as "the biggest barrier to sustainable superior performance". In dealing with the customer it is not doing one thing a thousand times better, it is doing a thousand things a tiny bit better. It is these actions that "add up to memorable responsiveness and distinction - and loyalty (repeat business)"

An IBM poster asks, "If your failure rate is one in a million, what do you tell that one customer"? The emphasis upon quality, service and excellence sets IBM apart. The company is not technology driven, but customer driven. It is reflected in all of their work. "When it comes to service, we treat every customer as if he or she is one in a million".

What is the orientation of the program staff? Are participants discussed as "necessary evils" or are they cherished and nurtured? Dothe support staff understand their role as that of support of participants activities and not support of program staff? The director remains the catalyst. Does the director inculcate his staff with a passion to make the participant their number one concern? Is the agency doing the little things that make the difference for participants and potential participants?

Preparing the Student

The educator and student have a shared responsibility in the practicum agency selection process. The educator should become intimately familiar with the potential practicum agencies. Ideally this should be accomplished by on-site visits; realistically this is probably not always possible. Other methods are available. Many institutions ask students to complete evaluation forms of agencies. These evaluation forms should be modified so that the questions encourage responses relating to excellence. Informal and formal post-practicum interviews with students should be mandatory.

The student's responsibility lies in knowing what questions to ask and to know what types of answers to listen for. The potential for students to recognize excellence is going to be directly in accordance with what the student has seen and heard in the classroom and curriculum. It is critical that the student receive appropriate preparation prior to seeking a practicum placement. This includes training in how to seek practicum agencies, how to recognize excellence, and what to listen for in excellent organizations. The real preparation begins in the classroom where a student is initially exposed to concepts of excellence.

Summary

Excellence is the challenge. The student and educator seek out those agencies that will provide opportunities for the student to experience excellence in action. Vision is the key component in such agencies. The leader must have a vision and must passionately care about that vision. The vision the leader communicates to the staff will be the key for determining excellence in the organization.

The other characteristics discussed are also important and cannot be ignored. They must be stressed, demanded, evaluated, and reviewed. They are part of the total picture and provide indicators of excellence. They cannot stand alone—they must be coupled with a vision.

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